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AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF JUNIOR COLLEGES

JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL

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Some Leaders in the American Association of Junior Colleges

James M. Ewing

THE AMERICAN Association of Junior Colleges is a dynamic, functional organization. Since its inception in 1920, the A.A.J.C. may be said to have had three distinct periods of development to its present position of nationwide recognition. Each period may be identified by the personality found in the Executive Secretary's Office.

During the first half of its life, the Association was naturally small and rather loosely organized, with no paid employees. Dr. Doak Campbell, now President of Florida State University, served as Secretary most of this time, he served without reimbursement for his efficient service and even furnished much of the "stamp money" for sending out various notices and communications.

The second phase of the development began in the late 30's when Dr. Walter C. Eells was employed on a part-time basis as Executive Secretary, with an office in Washington, D. C. As one of the recognized outstanding authorities on the rapidly developing junior college, Dr. Eells

was a guiding light during a period of rebirth in the Association's development.

During the past eleven years the progress, influence, and spirit of the American Association of Junior Colleges has been synonymous with the name, Jesse P. Bogue, the present Executive Secretary.



This writer served during the "Doak Campbell Era" as a member of the Auditing Committee an honorary assignment since there were essentially no funds to be audited; during the "Eells Era" as vice-president and a member of the Executive Committee; and during the "Bogue Era" as committee member, vice-president, and president. This experience over a twenty-year period provides the background for the statement to those interested in the A.A.J.C. that the organization is in excellent hands and is rendering outstanding service.

The American Association program centers around three operating activities: *Junior College Journal*, represented officially by the Editorial Board; five Research and Service Committees; and the Washington Office, administered by the Executive Secretary under general direction of the Board of Directors.

The *Junior College Journal* is edited by one of the outstanding men in the junior

JAMES M. EWING is President of Copiah-Lincoln Junior College, Wesson, Mississippi, and President of the American Association of Junior Colleges.

college field, Dr. James W. Reynolds, of The University of Texas. "Jim" gives unstintingly of his time to the *Journal*. The word "gives" is used literally as the editor serves without pay from the Association. The seven-year record of the *Journal* under Jim's editorship stands for itself. The *Junior College Journal* will stand proudly among publications of other organizations, many of which have a full-time highly paid editor and staff.

The Research and Service Committee system was established during the reorganization program more than ten years ago. The system represents the truly "grass roots" basis of operation. The forty members of the five committees represent every type and size junior and community college in each of the six regions. Projects originated by particular committees have provided the basis of research, which has been of inestimable value to the Association and its membership. Dr. C. C. Colvert, a distinguished educator, was for many years Director of Research for the A.A.J.C., and under his able direction much of the research was carried on. Research projects are now placed through the Washington Office. Dr. Colvert continues his unselfish service to the Association by serving as Assistant to the Vice-President, who has the direct responsibility for coordinating the committee work. Each of the five committee chairmen is responsible with his seven co-workers not only for initiating research but also for service projects and convention programs.

The choice of Jesse Bogue to serve as

Executive Secretary has proved to be providential. Born and reared in a rural community of Alabama, educated for the clergy, ordained a Methodist minister, many years President of Green Mountain College, service in the Vermont legislature as state senator, a term as President of the A.A.J.C., and many intervening activities provide a broad background for Jesse. It is an undisputed fact that he knows personally more junior college administrators and more junior college teachers than any other man in America. If time were measured on the basis of a forty-hour week, Jesse has served not eleven but twenty-odd years as Executive Secretary. He has traveled to every section of the nation, worked with every type system, taught in many workshops, served as legislative consultant, assisted in organizing numerous institutions, represented the Association exceedingly well around the conference table with governmental and educational committees in Washington, and in many other capacities served as a master statesman and educator for the junior and community colleges of America.

This is not an obituary, nor is Jesse retiring; this is a simple attempt to inform the readers of the *Journal* who have not had opportunity to know Mr. Junior College of America about a man who eats, lives, and sleeps the junior college.

This editorial by the President of the American Association of Junior Colleges was written without the knowledge or consent of any of the persons whose names are mentioned therein.

Trends in Citizenship Education at the Junior College Level

Joe F. Taylor

THERE IS in America today a great interest in having training for citizenship a primary aim in schools. Advocacy of such training is not new; in fact, it goes back at least to the time of Jefferson, if not before. During the last 15 years, however, the problem of how to instruct so as to develop better citizens has been attacked on a wider front and with more money for experimentation than ever before. The purpose of this article is to note some of the trends which have been developing in teaching citizenship in the freshman and sophomore years of college and which give promise of continuing to develop in the future. It is based on a survey made by the author in 1952 of all of the junior colleges in the United States concerning research, instruction, projects, or courses in citizenship education.¹

From the survey, one fact seems apparent—there is little new and original in any of the plans, projects, or courses now being used. The difference is in the emphasis.

In 1892, for instance, an NEA report² told of a high school teacher who took his

class in civil government to the courts, city council sessions, and the capital of the state to see the legislature in session. The same report recommended debates, mock town meetings, use of the topical method, and the preparation by pupils of papers on local institutions. Other reports in the 1890's emphasized the need for civic training. In 1903, Richard Welling addressed the NEA convention in Boston on the use and need for self-government as a means of civic training. At the annual meeting of the National Municipal League in Chicago in 1904, L. S. Rowe emphasized the advantage of bringing students into direct contact with public affairs and suggested that each student report on some phase of administration representing the results of his personal observation. At this same meeting, student government was discussed, and a detailed description of the "School City" plan was represented—one which had been in use since 1890. And, lest one think of student government as being exclu-

¹ Joe Fulton Taylor, "A Study of Opinions Reflecting Trends in Citizenship Education" (Unpublished doctor's dissertation, The University of Texas, 1954).

² National Educational Association, *Report of the Committee of Ten on Secondary School Studies* (New York: American Book Co., 1894), p. 165.

JOE F. TAYLOR is Chairman of the Department of Government, Amarillo College, Texas. In 1952 he was awarded the Ph.D. degree at The University of Texas. He is a past president of Texas Junior College Teachers.

sively American, it was reported that 50 schools in Havana, Cuba, had used the "School City" plan successfully since 1902.³ In 1915, P. P. Claxton, then Commissioner of Education in the United States, showed the emphasis he thought citizenship education should have by stating that the final justification of public taxation for public education lay in the training of the young people for citizenship.

A great impetus to citizenship education has come about in the last 15 years. Where formerly an occasional teacher practiced what are considered modern techniques or made talks that would be apropos today, there are now hundreds of teachers engaged in the same practice or becoming acquainted with these ideas. There have been at least 11 major studies on citizenship education since 1940, with most, of course, coming after the end of World War II. This does not touch on the hundreds of projects, experiments, and ideas which have been tried or discussed by schools, teachers, and administrators.

Out of this welter of projects, then, certain trends have developed in general and will continue to develop in the future. First, it might be well to consider the changes which have been occurring in the organization of courses, since most citizenship education is obviously taught in courses. There are four major ways this change has been effected. These are through (1) the integrated course or general education; (2) the use of the prob-

lems course as a method of instruction; (3) the use of the case study method as a means of instruction; and (4) the core curriculum. The integrated study and the core curriculum can be directly citizenship centered; the problems course and the case study must depend on direction by the instructor as to problems and cases chosen and how they are handled.

One of the most popular ways of making a course citizenship centered is through the integrated course or general education. These courses in general education usually involve a cutting across of subject-matter fields, or a consolidation of all or part of several subject-matter fields. While the exact beginning of the integrated course or of general education might be hard to locate, some developments can be noted. In 1919, the National Committee for Teaching Citizenship was formed with members on its board from the American Historical Association, the American Sociological Society, the American Political Science Association, the National Education Association, and the National Municipal League. While this organization did not last long, it was followed by others, and it was tacit admission that teaching citizenship involved more than study of one of the social sciences. Its efforts presumably led to an interest in crossing subject-matter fields where citizenship education was concerned. By 1922 at least 14 colleges had integrated courses or special courses which cut across subject-matter fields. Munro, in a report prepared for the American Political Science Association,⁴

³ Rev. Thomas H. Slicer, "The School City as a Form of Student Government," *Proceedings of the Chicago Conference for Good City Government and the Tenth Annual Meeting of the National Municipal League, 1904* (Philadelphia: National Municipal League, 1904), pp. 281-293.

⁴ William Munro, "Instruction in Political Science in Colleges and Universities," Report of the Committee on Policy, American Political Science Association (Menasha, Wisconsin: George Banta Publishing Co., 1930).

noted some additional efforts by 1930, but the greatest emphasis in the use of general education as a means of teaching citizenship has occurred since the late 1930's.

The Cooperative Study in General Education was begun in 1939 and continued through the war years to 1944. This study was carried on by 22 colleges. Among the suggestions made at the end of the study was one for a two-year integrated program in the social studies, aimed at educating for democratic citizenship. The California Study of General Education in the Junior College again emphasized a two-year general education program centered in the social sciences with citizenship education as a major aim. The Committee for the Advancement of Teaching of the American Political Science Association recommended further study of the integrated course and expressed considerable interest in such a program. Reynolds⁵ ranked citizenship training third in the point of adequacy of coverage in general education programs of the junior colleges he investigated. And the survey of the junior colleges of the United States, mentioned earlier, showed integrated courses or general education courses to be the most popular method of teaching citizenship reported, with more junior colleges using it than any other method.

The major organization of courses in colleges is still by subject matter, and general education is still a relatively minor reversal of this trend. All indications are, however, that it is one which is expand-

ing and holds promise of future growth in the training of citizenship. Stuart Chase thought the social disciplines have a tendency to merge. Whether they do or not is, of course, a debatable matter, but there is more than one social science involved in training for citizenship, and an integrated course offers means for these social sciences—political science, sociology, economics, psychology and history—to be combined to give citizenship education the blend it needs for the well-rounded development of the student. It is believed that a realization of the magnitude of training for citizenship, a widely acknowledged objective, will lead more colleges to adopt an integrated course, most likely in the freshman and/or sophomore years, as the means they choose for advancing citizenship education.

Another change which can and is taking place in organization of courses is the adoption of problems courses, the use of the case study, and, to a lesser degree the use of topics and documents. The first two seem to hold most promise of continuing to develop in the future. Both the problems course and the case study have been known and used for a number of years, but their use has been limited. A course in "Problems in Democracy" was recommended by the Committee on Social Studies of the NEA in 1916, with a three-step approach: first, an approach to the problem; second, an investigation into, or of, the problem; and, third, analyzing the problem in terms of responsibilities of a citizen. Generally, this same method is used in problems courses today, although it may not be so formally stated. Dartmouth College had a course in "Problems in Democracy" in 1922. By the mid-twenties the problems course was a known means of teaching

⁵ James Walton Reynolds, "The Adequacy of the General-Education Program of Local Public Junior Colleges" (Unpublished doctor's dissertation, University of Chicago, 1945).

citizenship and at least one textbook, *Problems in Citizenship*, by Hayes Baker-Crothers and Ruth A. Hudnut had been published. Bakersfield Junior College has been using it since 1932. It has continued to have a slow but steady growth in popularity and was one of the most popular methods of instruction in citizenship used by junior colleges as shown by the author's 1952 survey of junior colleges.

The other method of changing organization within the framework of a regular course is the use of the case study. This method was originally used by law schools and is still the way most law courses are taught. In the 1920's Harvard started to use the case method in its school of business. By the early 1930's it was being experimented with by political scientists, but these experiments probably did not apply to an entire course but only to such case studies as were available and pertinent. During the thirties constitutional law and international law began to use the case method, and there has been considerable development of new cases in these fields. It was felt for some time that case methods could not be applied to citizenship education, and it is only since World War II that some efforts have gone in this direction. However, the case method offers promise for further experimentation, and its use is gradually being expanded as new cases and textbooks based on this method are developed.

These two, the problems course and the case study method, can be discussed together, as much the same arguments for and against are offered for both. Briefly, the major objections commonly raised are that they are episodic, that fundamentals are not stressed, that content is ignored, and that many times only a superficial

knowledge of the issues is learned by the student. In favor, the arguments presented are that there is more student participation, the instructor becomes a moderator and discussion leader and not just a relator of facts, that more different ideas can be brought out and analyzed, and that principles can be better established when related to a real situation. Regardless of the pros and cons, the methods both show signs of continued growth, with the problems approach already established, with a number of excellent textbooks available, and the case method being widely admired in political science, sociology and psychology departments.

One last type of study which is now being experimented with is the core curriculum. This is not as popular as the integrated study or the problem or case study method, and whether it will be is questionable. However, it is more widely used than before and should receive some mention. As long ago as 1929, Santa Monica Junior College experimented with a core curriculum with social studies as the core, and possibly similar studies or curriculums were used previously. From the thirties on, the core curriculum has been used by public schools, especially in the elementary grades. Some junior colleges have experimented with the core curriculum since World War II.

This program, while it offers an excellent chance to make a whole program citizenship centered, still involves major changes in the curriculum with, inevitably, some departments becoming secondary to others. It also offers certain other obstacles, such as transfer troubles (to which junior colleges are peculiarly sensitive), programming, and so on,

which would quite possibly hinder its spread as a means of instruction. However, it is one of the newer approaches to teaching citizenship and could become fairly popular.

The second trend, which is concerned with the presentation of subject matter, has been developing rapidly. It has to do with the emphasis within the courses placed by the instructor or the textbook, or both. It can be divided into three parts or general classifications: the sociological approach, the philosophical approach, and the realistic approach.

The first of these considers the sociological aspects of citizenship—the social influences which shape and promote citizenship. Man and his place in our society is the view emphasized, and his participation as a citizen is one of his social functions and obligations.

The second approach points up our democratic background and the moral, ethical, and spiritual values inherent in such a background. There is a definite effort made to show the advantages and good points of the democratic system, both as a system of government and as a way of living.

The use of the third approach does not mean that the first two are not present also, but it is listed to show that an unprecedented number of professors have had the opportunity the last 15 years to work with or for the government, and have brought the practical aspects of what they learned back to the classroom and included it in their articles and textbooks. In addition, there has been a strong movement to produce textbooks which are more realistic in discussing the issues before the people and the forces which influence government. All of these

factors add up to an influence in training for citizenship which is far reaching.

First to be discussed is the sociological approach. The feeling that there was a need for developing a sense of social responsibilities in the student had been growing for a number of years. This feeling began to take on substance in citizenship education training during the 1930's and by the late thirties and early forties had become a definitely identifiable trend in citizenship education. The economy of the country became greatly dependent on government action, and the government became more of a service institution than it had been previously. The emphasis was on man in society, and citizenship was assumed to involve more than political participation. The individual was in danger of being lost from sight in the midst of the great corporate groups. Some groups, such as the Educational Policies Commission, and some authors, such as William Mosher, Newton Edwards, Ralph W. Tyler, and E. S. Redford, pointed out the trend or emphasized the need for this sociological phase. This stress is strong today, with many of the newer textbooks showing this emphasis, and it gives promise of continuing to grow in the future. Thus, some schools offer their courses in citizenship as sociological courses, as, for instance, the New York State Institute of Applied Arts and Sciences at Utica, where the course, "The Citizen and His Community," is in the Department of Sociology and is a course in citizenship. But, regardless of where offered, the sociological implications of citizenship education are being stressed more all of the time.

A second major change in emphasis which is found a great deal today is based on the philosophy of democracy—the ethi-

ical considerations and moral values that are basic in our civilization and our type of government. Some of the new textbooks are based entirely on promoting an understanding of these concepts; others offer a combination of this philosophy and social awareness. The urge to educate for democracy, a term popularized within the last 25 years, had its beginnings as an announced objective in the thirties. There was a good deal of bandying of the term and general discussion of what could be developed in this period. There was also a reaction against it, as some held that education or indoctrination for democracy was anti-democratic and defeated the purpose. Opinion began to jell around the early forties as the very definite threat of rival ideologies was realized, and, today, there is more emphasis on the ideological background of our form of government than at any time in a century. It has brought a resurgence of interest in natural law, which was looked on askance for many years. There is greater emphasis on religion in colleges, after a decline which lasted from the end of World War I to the late forties. This phase seems to come from a concern for values which is found in ever-widening sectors of American life and gives every evidence of continuing to increase in the future.

Realism, the last mentioned of the changes in the presentation of subject matter, is based on the various tacks taken by instructors and certain changes found in textbooks. It has already been mentioned that some of the new books have sociological or philosophical tendencies, but, along with this, they are more realistic. This does not mean the older books did not have the facts, for they did.

Some of the older texts are almost encyclopaedic in facts pertaining to the government. But facts can sometimes obscure the realities of a situation. In the new textbooks, there is a more realistic effort to focus attention on the forces which affect government and peoples and, hence, citizenship participation. The increased space and attention given to civil rights, to the federal system and the interplay and distribution of power between the central and state governments, to citizenship and immigration, to pressure groups and political parties, to foreign affairs, and so on, all point up this new realism, this new attempt to assess and/or analyze the forces which help us govern and which one needs to understand to be a good, working citizen. Add to this the fact that many instructors, fortified with first-hand knowledge of government gained in government service in recent years, brought new realism to their teaching, and one finds a factor which has changed teaching for citizenship education by the individual instructor in the classroom.

There is a third major division or trend, one which might be called the participating, or do-it-yourself phase. This involves, particularly, the use of the community as a laboratory. Since the end of World War II, the part of this phase concerned with special projects has taken on new meaning with the advent of well financed, long-range, national-in-scope programs. The community laboratory, variations of which have been used by both the Citizenship Education Project of Columbia University and the Kansas State Institute of Citizenship, has been one of the most highly promoted tech-

niques of the last ten years. The project at Columbia University received well over two million dollars from various foundations, and the Kansas State project had an original grant of \$450,000. Money in this amount to study such social and political problems as improving citizenship has not been available before. Indicative that the trend (large grants for training in citizenship) has not ended is the recently announced grant of \$200,000 by the Filene Foundation to Tufts College to advance the work of that school's Civic Education Center.

In addition to the Columbia, Kansas State, and Tufts projects, there have been other major studies, such as the Citizenship Clearing House, co-sponsored by the American Political Science Association, the Law Center of New York University, and studies carried on at Detroit, Philadelphia, Cambridge, Stanford University, and the University of Miami. In addition, a number of individual colleges, as pointed out by Thomas and Doris Reed for the Citizenship Clearing House, have good programs, and at least two of them, the University of Toledo and the University of Syracuse, are long-time leaders in the field, with programs dating from 1919 and 1924, respectively.

The publicity, the energy behind the programs, plus the fact that there seem to be positive results obtainable from these various projects have given them great importance. The type of training many of them emphasizes is not being pushed seemingly at the present, but the projects do not seem to be rapidly diminishing, and they have had, and will probably continue to have, force and effect for some time to come.

If this particular classification is enlarged to include all forms of participation, it becomes one of the major ways citizenship education is being taught, and one of the oldest. In his survey, the writer found that more junior colleges used problems courses and integrated studies as a means of teaching citizenship than any other means, but second was the use of various means of participation in the actual governing of citizenship process. In a comprehensive summary of this type of training there would be included student government, using outside speakers, forums, making community surveys, attending governmental functions, putting out a voters' guide, using college facilities for community affairs, mock U. N. meetings, and a multitude of other long and short term projects. Just a casual glancing through the educational, political science, and sociological literature will disclose how widely such schemes are in use, with new ideas appearing constantly and being reported on.

Possibly the most common of the above is the use of various forms of student government to give the individual some say in the affairs of the college. A few junior colleges have representatives of the student body as members of their boards of regents. A number of the colleges give the students control over all social functions. In some cases the students run the bookstores. In several colleges the students have jurisdiction over all minor infractions committed on the campus. In many instances, of course, the student government is very restricted, and only lip service is paid to the idea, but it received the most enthusiastic endorsement from those replying to the enquiry of any method of

citizenship training. The gradual democratization of student government seems to be another trend in citizenship education.

A fourth influence, which may not be properly classified as a trend but does have its effect on citizenship training, is that provided by out-of-school agencies, and these can be helpful or harmful. There are many out-of-school agencies constructively interested in citizenship education. These groups and their interest, as is true with other factors mentioned previously, are not new. Arthur Dunn, in 1915, commented on the number of active, interested organizations working to aid citizenship education in particular, and education in general. Many groups, such as the National Municipal League, the League of Women Voters, the American Bar Association, and others, have a long record of excellent help to the schools behind them, and they continue their good work. Others have seemed to have selfish motives; nevertheless, the range of help offered is wide. Bessie L. Pierce showed the variety of these agencies in the early thirties in her book, *Citizen's Organization and the Civic Training of Youth*, which is probably the most complete investigation of these outside groups and their interest in civic or citizenship training.

To give some idea of the extent of these outside aids, a survey made in Texas showed 28 different active agencies in the state, ranging from the Texas Federation of Labor to the Texas Manufacturers Association, The Texas Grange to the Better Business Bureaus of Texas, the Texas Congress of Parents and Teachers to H. L. Hunt's Facts Forum. This does not, of

course, touch all of the sources available, which are usually anxious to help if they are given the opportunity. Some of these outside agencies have very fine and complete programs; some have one pet project they promote; most of them are reputable; a few, perhaps, suspect.

Another form of outside influence in the schools has been more harmful than helpful. Pressures on various levels of the schools, on teachers, textbooks, professional organizations, foundations and related groups and individuals have been intense the last few years. These pressures are not new. As early as 1642 American people showed an interest in regulating the character of instruction in their schools, and this desire has persisted to the present. A good deal of the time, though, this was the normal concern that would be expected in institutions for training the young. But, since around 1917, this interest has intensified and, in many instances, become overt and overwhelming in its insistence on uniformity. In the twenties and again in the thirties the attacks were mostly on textbooks and leaders, especially of the progressive education movement; but Howard K. Beale, in his book, *Are American Teachers Free?*, was able to list hundreds of individual cases where teachers' freedoms had been interfered with. Since the end of World War II, there has been more censure of the teaching profession as such and its professional organizations and supporting foundations, but the textbooks and individual teachers have not been completely forgotten in the various charges and countercharges. Some of the criticisms have been offered in a spirit of constructive aid and have been beneficial, but

many are born out of suspicion of anything intellectual or different.

The high point of the tide seems to have been reached, and the outlook seems to be for continued pressure, but not in quite such a virulent form as from 1945 to 1954. No matter how minor the criticism becomes, though, (and it probably will not be minor for a number of years), it has its effect upon some teachers and schools that strive to avoid controversy by offering only safe courses. In this respect citizenship training is vitally affected. A democracy is built on the idea of controversy. This assumes, of course, that those who are party to the controversy are informed, and not just arguing from prejudice and ignorance. Informed controversy, where issues are argued on their merits, should be promoted in good citizenship training, and the teacher or school which cannot or will not touch controversial topics is not offering a fully rounded citizenship training program to the students.

Finally, there are some influences coming to the foreground which may have some effect on citizenship training. One of these is adult education. Already almost as many people are enrolled in adult education courses around the country as there are in day academic courses. While the regular students are increasing, so are those in adult education. Many adult courses have been organized in Great Books and Great Issues. Since these tend to emphasize the philosophy behind democracy, they could be classified under the general heading of citizenship improvement. The possibilities in adult education have not begun to be touched, and

prospects there for citizenship training are extensive.

Another great prospect for promoting better training in citizenship is educational television. Its potential impact is tremendous. As with adult education, it offers rare opportunities in citizenship training.

Still another influence is the continuing effect of urban and industrial concentration on American life. Great corporations are today a leading source of employment and dominate the American economy. Big business, big labor, big government, all create new social and governmental problems for the people as a whole. This cult of bigness, urbanization of the country, and continually increasing industrialization are trends which can have an effect on citizenship education in the future.

Citizenship education itself is one of the rapidly growing fields of study in the country. This does not mean, nor does this article mean, to imply that practically every school or college in the country has its own specialized program aimed especially at training for citizenship, for such is not the case. In most schools citizenship is still taught on an incidental basis. In such cases, it is still the precept and example of the faculty, administration, and student leaders which furnish the background for the student's citizenship training. Leaders in the three groups who are fair, have integrity, and are honorable in their dealings with their fellows still can command a following and influence others by example. Changes are being wrought in this way even though not consciously. Also, the trends in textbooks are bringing on changes and offering new outlooks, so that the regularly organized class has at

least some touch of the new in its efforts toward citizenship training. The change is gradual, but it is going on.

To summarize, there has always been great interest in using the schools to help in training for citizenship. The schools acknowledge this objective, but how to go about such training is a moot point. In the last 15 years there has been great interest in actively training for citizenship, and a number of programs have been developed, enlarged, experimented with, and promoted. While there is still no agreement on what system is best, the wide variety of efforts can be grouped and classified under general headings. This article attempts to do that. The writer recognizes that a majority of the colleges in their first two years still follow established forms in their course organization and in presentation of material, but feels that many of the ideas and plans discussed have been adopted, at least in part, by college instructors, even where the presentation follows established procedures.

Talk about citizenship education has been going on for a century and a half.

The twenties saw a great interest in attempts to make citizenship education a science; the thirties, though preoccupied with the depression, produced many new ideas and studies, some impractical and short-lived, but many basic to today's programs; and the last 15 years have seen great interest and large sums of money spent to promote citizenship training, but most teachers have thought of the actual teaching as being about as realistic as trying to grab a hand full of smoke. Today, though, study and experiments have shown that a number of approaches can be made to work in arousing the interest and providing the background for good citizenship. While their exponents claim much for each system (and there is good in most programs studied), it is probable that no one system works with all students. But the various ideas do produce results, and it is suggested that those who have yet to try some of the means listed under various groups of developments and trends do so now. It is believed that they will find that something positive can be done in training for citizenship.

"Presenting Coalinga College"

Alfred M. Livingston

"PRESENTING Coalinga College," a thirty-minute 16mm. public relations film in color, was used in the college's visitation and public relations program for the first time this past spring. This film had its beginnings in a suggestion from the school's Public Relations Committee during the spring of 1953. Two members of the faculty who had some amateur experience in photography volunteered to undertake this project and the Board of Trustees felt the expenditures involved would be worthwhile.

The college owned a Bell and Howell BL 70 moving picture camera with a three-lens turret and tripod. After some experimentation, and in the interests of speed of operation, the group decided to use a Mayfair Extendolite which attaches to the camera itself for indoor scenes. More elaborate lighting would possibly have been preferable from an aesthetic point of view; however, the results have been more than adequate.

Since the idea behind the film was to show realistically the various activities of the college to high school seniors in the service area, as well as to the general public, the decision was made to use a logical arrangement of scenes that would depict the college and not to attempt a film story in the usual sense.

ALFRED M. LIVINGSTON is Director of Coalinga Junior College, Coalinga, California.

To keep production costs down on this first attempt, it was decided to tie the film together with titles in appropriate places rather than attempt a sound narration on the film itself. The titler was borrowed from a local movie fan and was surprisingly easy to use. It would be possible to utilize a tape recorded narration synchronized with the film and this may come later; however, at present, the faculty member showing the film has acted as a narrator, adjusting his explanation to the audience involved.

Some examples of scenes from the film include students actually at work in the chemistry, physics, biology, and geology laboratory; counselors and deans conferring with students; sport and physical education scenes; various student activities; the college farm and its activities; other classroom work; and views of dormitories and the campus.

Most of the scenes were not staged in the conventional sense since the faculty members doing the photography did not have the time to spare (this assignment was undertaken in addition to regular duties), and it was felt that spontaneity was more important than a well-polished, but staged, production. For most scenes, arrangements were made with the instructors involved a few days beforehand, and it should be said in praise of both faculty

and students that full cooperation was achieved.

After all scenes were completed, the film was edited and titled, which was no mean task in itself for amateurs; however, the reception the film has been accorded in its various showings has been a reward to all those who devoted extra hours to it and has shown that such a film has merit for the public relations program of any collegiate institution.

Plans now are to add a scene here and there and generally to "tighten up" the film during the 1955-56 academic year and to experiment, at least, with synchronized, taped narration to be played with each showing of the film. Since the college will move to a new campus in the fall of 1956, the plan is to utilize the experience gained with this production to make an entirely new film at that time. This projected film will have its own sound track and the various scenes will be planned to look fresh for at least a five-year period so that the additional expense may be justified by use over a comparatively long period of time.

For the results achieved, the cost of the

film was not excessive. One hundred foot rolls of color film retail for approximately \$10.40, and since some 1,200 feet of film were used, the total cost per film was \$124.80. It should be noted that the editing process resulted in a completed movie of about 800 feet in length with 400 feet being discarded for one reason or another. By Hollywood standards the wastage was not great, but it is felt that the next attempt will be more economical in this regard. The only other cost was \$13.89 which was paid for the Extendolite with its four flood lamps.

In terms of actual time, it is estimated that 50 man-hours were spent in photographing the scenes and titles, 10 man-hours in editing, and 12 additional man-hours in planning, resulting in a total of 72 man-hours.

The film, "Presenting Coalinga College," has greatly improved the college's public relations program, and the experience gained in producing it, rather than turning to professionals, has opened new vistas in public relations work to Coalinga College.

Automation From the Viewpoint of Labor*

Ted F. Silvey

THIS INVITATION to speak provided me the privilege not only to know your Dr. Jesse P. Bogue quite well, to be on the platform this morning with my old friend, Dwayne Orton, to meet Dr. Walker, whose good professional reputation is so widespread, but also to sit in your convention and to learn something about your organization and its work.

Dr. Orton has taken a perfectly fair advantage of me; I am not a member of the American Association of Junior Colleges as he is. I suppose I could reverse the twist on that and suggest that if some of you, especially your faculties, were members of the organization that I represent, you might have some new problems, but I think in the solution of them you would be working in relation to 1956 instead of 1926 or even 1916.

Don't you get tired of handling some of those things we ought to have settled decades ago and are still fussing about? And here, now, we come to a new technology which imposes on us still more requirements before we have settled the problems from the requirements of the past. This is really a big challenge to us, not only in terms of our mental flexibility, but in terms of our whole relationship to our own society and the world.

My desire is first to speak to you about

the acceleration of the technology. I'm going to speak about only one aspect of this acceleration, because it is related to what I want to say about the impact of automation on the economic ideas that the labor movement holds and promotes.

One of the great problems before us today is what we call food surpluses. Any thinking citizen knows we have no food surpluses while people are in need of food. Half the people of the world go to sleep hungry every night, yet we have upward of ten billion dollars of food in storage at a cost of a million dollars a day—Norman Cousins told us yesterday morning. The problem is how to get this food into the stomachs of people, so it can have a one-day passage through the human alimentary tract. This is a problem we are still working on.

I want to refer to that magnificent issue of *Life* magazine, the first of 1955, which portrayed so beautifully in text and pictures the goodness of God's earth on this continent under the impact of technology on the farm. You may remember one of the statistics. In the year 1804, shortly after Malthus wrote his book, a farmer working as hard as he could work from daylight to dark produced enough food to feed himself and to provide one-third of the food requirements for an-

TED F. SILVEY is in the National AFL-CIO Department of Education, Washington, D.C.

* This speech was presented at the Annual AAJC Convention, March, 1956.

other person. Or to put it in round numbers, it took the labor of three farmers to produce enough food to keep four people alive.

At the end of 1954, a farmer working a rational workday was able to produce enough food to feed not only himself but to provide the food requirements for seventeen other persons. To put it in the same round numbers, the labor of three farmers produced enough food to keep fifty-four people alive—one plus seventeen times three.

As a consequence of this technology in agriculture, we are engaged in the political enterprise to cut back production, to stop growing so much. The latest effort is the picking up of Rexford Tugwell's 1933 idea of the soil bank, which has many good points—especially if the land could be used for tree crops—but the technology of agriculture is such that no matter what proportion of the land we are able politically to take out of cultivation, the technology will accelerate productivity so greatly that the remaining land will produce even more food than we are producing now. We are not going to solve the agriculture problem by artificially destroying the abundance technology has given us. The people who are handling this problem politically are going to be in even deeper trouble than Mr. Benson is now. We have to readjust our thinking about abundance and its use.

Two years ago I had the privilege of spending a month in the British West Indies. I had never been there before, and I found the people to be the kindest, gentlest, friendliest people I have ever met. Being a white man in a black man's country is a unique expe-

rience from a sociological point of view, and one learns many things.

I followed the United Nations technicians around. I went with the World Health Organization team and the Food and Agriculture Organization people. I learned of the lack of calcium these people suffer. They are not strong enough because they lack the calcium to have the strength to do the hard work which would enable them to improve their economy and their personal and family lives. The reason they do not have calcium is because they don't have milk, and they don't have milk because their dairy industry has never grown. Dairy and other products succumbed to the sugar cane economy; the absentee owners of England and elsewhere took the one-crop wealth out of the Islands and left nothing there for the people to grow on.

I felt this dairy shortage myself, because I am the cow's best friend with respect to the consumption of dairy products. I got along without dairy products while I was in the Islands. There was condensed milk from Canada which included sugar that had been grown in the Islands and shipped to Canada to be shipped back in the milk, and there was cheese from New Zealand which was too expensive for the people to be able to purchase very much.

I wasn't back home a month until I saw in the *New York Times* a story that Secretary Benson had offered for sale between five and six hundred million pounds of dried powdered milk. This is rich in calcium; this is tremendously valuable food, but it was being sold at giveaway prices to the companies that make animal feed. I say "giveaway" prices be-

cause the animal feed companies wouldn't buy it unless they could get it at a price low enough to be competitive to what they were already putting in their animal feed.

So we took this more than half a million pounds of dried powdered milk, rich in calcium, and we put it back into the bellies of cows that made the milk in the first place, so they could make more milk for the government to buy, to dry, to store, to sell again to the animal food companies to put back into the bellies of cows to repeat the process? Is this why we produce milk? Is this why we make dairy products?

The problem is not alone: What is the technology? It is the problem of our attitude toward the results of it. I assert that the calcium in milk is of more use in democracy's conflict with communism than all the military hardware we'll ever build, and that if the stomachs of people that are shrunk with hunger are nourished with some of this food, we may not only have friends among the uncommitted peoples of the world but stronger friends who will discover that democracy is more than speeches.

But we have trouble to bring our minds to consent to put this food into people's stomachs. Why, you ought to see the anguish among some congressmen when they vote some of this surplus food for hot school lunches. They consider this as one of the worst of Calvinistic sins—to let children have food that their parents don't pay for. This is really atrocious, but the fact is that parents have paid for it in taxes.

One-fifth of the families of our country have incomes of less than \$2,000 a

year, and a substantial section of that number, less than \$1,000 a year. I want to assert that the impact of technology on the marketplace with respect to agricultural products has already come to a full cycle, and that we will not solve it by attempting to frustrate and set back the technology. Instead, we have to find ways to use the output for human beings even as Dr. Orton appealed to us.

Heretofore, the situation has been different in industry. On the fifteenth of August a manufacturer can put a notice on his bulletin board addressed to his employees, "Shut down for seven weeks." To do so is bad for the economy. It prevents workers from having wages which keeps them from buying toys for their children, from paying insurance premiums and utility bills, and buying things that they need for their homes. Therefore hurt comes to those other people and industries because purchasing power is cut off. But from the manufacturer's point of view he can shut down, he can lay off his workers, he can create a running sore in the economy, and he does. That is, until we get the guaranteed annual wage fully set up, and then he won't do it anymore!

But a farmer can't put a notice on his cornfield fence on the fifteenth of August to say to his corn, "Stop growing." He can't put a notice in the barn telling the cows to stop lactating or the hens to stop laying eggs. He could, of course, shoot the cows or wring the hen's necks, but this destroys his capital equipment. The point I want to make is that corn must go through the belly of a pig to make bacon and pork.

We have reached the point where the

agricultural technology requires us to begin to change our economic and moral notions about food. I proceed immediately to assert that the new technology in industry which is being called automation will produce the identical situation with respect to the cascading output of factories. Will the government be called upon by manufacturers to buy their output at the taxpayers' expense and store it unused as is being done with agricultural products in an effort to keep from having a depression, or will it put the stuff into the homes and lives of people for their use?

Now this means a terrible mental wrench. Adam Smith would not only turn over in his grave, according to his modern interpreters, but he would whirl faster than a carousel. We must change our concepts of economics under the pressure of abundance; our unwillingness to do so is what makes our problems. We of the labor movement say, and I especially like to say this when I am addressing Rotary Clubs and industrial management groups, that the machines will be able to do everything except buy what they make. It takes money in people's pockets in good volume all the year through (that's where I get in the point on the guaranteed annual wage!) to ring the cash registers! There is no more beautiful symphony to American businessmen than constantly ringing cash registers.

Now I just want to talk a little bit about the technology—Dwayne did, and Dr. Walker will. There are two kinds of industries in America, the continuous flow and the cut-and-fit. The continuous flow type represents new industries: oil refining, chemical and plastics making.

Continuous flow also includes modernization of ancient industries like paper making, glass making, sugar refining, and baking and confectionery making.

The continuous flow industries are already highly automated, although the technology of them is increasing at a tremendous rate. John Diebold is responsible for the statement that the petroleum industry is primitive compared to the technology that it has available to install. Many things in the changeover from the old batch method to the continuous flow method are part of the fascinating story of automation.

The cut-and-fit industries are those which, as the name describes, make products of materials like wood, metal, leather, plastic, fabric, or rubber, which are cut and fit together to make a finished product. Eli Whitney was famous for the invention of the cotton gin, which made slavery really profitable and then brought the Civil War. The thing that Eli Whitney really did that was phenomenal for American industry was to invent the concept of the interchangeable part. With the interchangeable part, mass production could come, although, curiously, it didn't come until three-quarters of a century later. The automotive industry is the one that got the credit for using the interchangeable part concept on a large scale, which has now been applied in so much of industry.

Under mass production, the work tasks were reduced to the lowest indivisible operation; the idea of trivialization came. A man spent the best hours of his day repeating trifles, but under the impact of the Taylor management system, the Bideaux system, the time study engineer,

and the so-called wage incentive system, employers said: "Look, brother, we want you to use only a tiny bit of this magnificent thing which is the human body, but we want you to use it very fast over and over and over again. We'll hire foremen and time study engineers to be there to drive you, and we'll give you the carrot of a wage incentive program to make you want to do it!" So we got the degrading experience that the mass production system has been. In the process, cut-and-fit industries have become like continuous flow industries.

This is one reason why the labor movement has grown, the reason why the automobile industry had its first labor troubles, not over wages, but over this degrading of the human being on a speeded-up assembly line. As long as men could be hired cheap to use this tiny bit of their potential ability working hard and fast all the time to turn out products, employers had no incentive to change. But when the labor movement began to demand more nearly adequate wages and other benefits for employees, then the employers discovered that this trivialization of work by using the tremendously complex mechanism which is a man or a woman was silly; it's perfectly easy to build a machine to do it. When wages became higher, the employer merely hired engineers to build machines to replace workers.

Now in addition to the building of machines—and men since World War II have built machines that are more complicated than men can control—there is more recently the evolution of the instrument industry. The machines extend man's muscle power. A gigantic forging press with 15,000 tons pressing a piece of

hot metal into a forming die is merely a gigantic fist. So, in addition to machines extending man's muscle power by all the energy sources that are available, instruments extend man's perceptive senses.

Instruments are now available to take the place of and do far more than man can do with his natural seeing, smelling, tasting, hearing, and feeling. In the old days a coal miner used to take a canary to work with him. It was not for the purpose of being amused with the canary's singing while he dug coal. When the canary dropped over dead, it was time for the miner to get out of the work place, because there was gas around and he'd better get out or he'd drop dead next!

Well, now there are instruments that are built to such sensitivity that all you need to do is to set a range of tolerance, deviation from which will blow a whistle or ring a bell or flash a light. Manufacturers can get all kinds of smelling apparatus as well as tasting apparatus and hearing and seeing and feeling apparatus.

Instruments now extend man's perceptive senses in fabulous ways, even to this thing that the psychologists call *prio-perception*. An instrument, like a man with experience and know-how, can now handle a job and know what's going to happen next, and if it be the wrong thing, can stop it from happening. So, machines extending man's muscle and instruments extending his perceptive senses, including the power of *prio-perception*, are married to make automation possible.

I will define automation, but it isn't my definition. It's the best one that I've found out of scores of attempts. It's by Professor H. W. Martin of the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute. "Automation is the per-

formance of a work task by an integrated power-driven mechanism, entirely without the direct application of human energy, skill, intelligence or control." That definition will hold up.

There are three legs on the stool called automation: (1) highly engineered mechanization, (2) the feed-back or closed loop control, and (3) the electronic computer, sometimes falsely called the giant brain. It ought to be called instead a giant spinal cord, which would be more descriptive.

The attitude of the labor movement toward automation is constructive and useful, but militant. We see here the possibility of eliminating drudgery, and this is good. Here's our mass production man who does the same trifling thing over and over again. We rationalize this drudgery by saying, "Well, it makes products cheaper. We can have more goods, and it makes employment, pays wages; therefore, we'll endure it." But now we can eliminate this drudgery of work, and people can really begin to live!

The human race, barring war, now has the possibility to escape from this constant, dominating drive of working for a living and begin the wonderful business of living. Believe me, there are going to be social wrenches and severe adjustments to make in order to stop this infernal business of striving ever to get more money. I am endeavoring to get the word to millionaires: "Why are you trying to ruin your health?" "Why are you trying to upset your families?" "What are you trying to do all this for—just to get another million dollars when you can't use what you have now." Let's quit struggling and striving in this eternal business of trying

to get richer, and let's begin to enjoy life and to make living the important point.

More and more jobs under automation are going to become like a fireman's job in the firehouse. This is very un-Calvanistic. The fireman, to fulfill what the religious puritan thought was "up and doing," should be out pouring tons of water on burning buildings all day long throughout the city. This would mean to the efficiency engineer that he has a high production norm. But the fireman sits in the firehouse playing checkers or reading or listening to the radio or talking with his fellows, and this is wonderful!

Under the new technology, employees will be most useful to their employers when they are not working at the height of their speed, but when they are exercising their skills at the time they are needed. I agree thoroughly with Dr. Orton that the skills will be much higher. He didn't add the points I always put in: there will be fewer numbers of people in factories requiring these higher skills, and one of our sociological problems will be that of the semi-skilled and the unskilled who may not be needed or wanted. The industrial rejectee will become a new responsibility for all of us.

The American labor movement today, excepting maybe some remote corners with a larger share of cultural lag, is not interested in repeating the operation of the French weavers in 1803 who threw their wooden shoes, the sabots, into the Jacquard looms, thus making sabotage and creating the word. We know that it is silly to do this; now, because we have a strong labor movement, we are more interested in going down the road and meeting this new thing and taking it by

the hand and, with the influence and help of other forces in society that are constructive, leading it in the direction in which it ought to go for the full benefit of people. That, we intend to do.

I have not done extensive research, but such study as I have done with respect to the impact on jobs shows me three things. First, the new equipment is put in. It destroys jobs and job classifications, but under the union contract and the nature of the employer's business, the people that are displaced are transferred, retrained to do other jobs without loss of wages or seniority. The problem here is that no new people are ever hired again for these jobs.

The second situation is one in which the machines are put in and more jobs are made, but the output goes up astronomically. Let me cite the case of an induction heating operation in an Indiana factory. Sixteen people were required under the old manual-mechanical method. After the automation equipment was put in, 14 more people had to be hired. The 30 people turned out 11 times as much product as the 16 people with the old-fashioned equipment. So, here's the problem in the economy: Who's going to buy all this stuff?

In the third situation, the new equipment is put in, automation is installed, and jobs are destroyed in such volume that it becomes a problem of collective bargaining because the employer discharges the people. Here is another case, again in an Indiana plant, this one making table flatware—a knife, fork, and spoon buffing and polishing operation. Twenty-four old-fashioned machines did one piece at a time to produce 100,000

operations in eight hours. There were 24 operators and eight set-up men and off-bearers. Three Automatic Clair machines were installed. Two operators run the three machines. One set-up man attends them all. The new machines handle three dozen pieces at once and can do the same 100,000 operations in eight hours. The company fired 29 people, including women who had 24 years of seniority. Well, it took the union four months to settle that hassle, until we got everybody back at work on a job they could do without violating their seniority and reducing their wages.

Now this is contrary to the employer's idea. The reason he put in the three modern machines is so he could fire 29 people. That's his purpose, because direct labor cost is what he wants to save. Do we then frustrate technology? No! We say, "Go on and put it in, but add the cost of what you have to do for the people to the cost of the new equipment and amortize it together." While we are not going to stand in the path of progress, we are also not going to allow the employer to throw out his displaced workers along with his displaced machinery. We say: "You can throw out the old machines, you can put sledgehammers to them and junk them if you want to, but you can't junk our people! You can't throw them on the scrap-heap!"

Now, you can encounter problems here. One employer may not be able to do this. So that moves the problem to the whole society, and then we get into political and other relationships.

Many things that are said about automation may be true, but each statement isn't true of all of it. . . . "Automation is

not new." If one is talking about highly engineered mechanization, it is not new except in the speed of its application. But when you talk about feedback or closed loop control, it is new, and when you talk about electronic computers, they are very new. . . . "Automation will make more jobs." Of course, it will in some situations. . . . "Automation will destroy skilled jobs." Yes, it does in some cases. In other cases, it makes jobs of even higher skills. So, therefore, we have to meet each situation.

I am perfectly happy to suggest there can be ten million new jobs created in the next ten years by automation. This is a very conservative estimate in my opinion. There will be new products we do not know about. There will be services we have not dreamed of. But there can be one million old jobs destroyed which will never again be needed. Employers say: "In the long run, automation is going to be wonderful for everybody." And so do we say so, but we also add: "The labor movement exists to make life more tolerable in the short run." We are concerned for the people who get their hand in the crack when the door slams on it.

The new wealth that will be created by automation is so extensive, so great, that there is almost nothing we want to do that we can't do and pay for it out of the new wealth. Capital becomes much cheaper. The tremendous 542-station transfer machine at the Brooks Park automated engine plant of the Ford Motor Company is paid for when it makes some 2,500,000 engines and is engineered to do both the six cylinder I-block and the eight cylinder Y-block engine. After the 2,500,000 engines, its life continues; it is the property

of the company without any more capital charges against it.

There are three overriding things that we have to consider under the impact of the new technology. One is education, one is health, and one is slum clearance and housing. Related to the third is the opening up of our congested cities so that traffic can get through.

Now, the problem of education is the concern of this convention. In the minutes I have left, I want to read from the unpublished address to a private group by the president of a distinguished technological college in this country. "This need for more intensive training of production workers turns the spotlight on the two-year or so-called technical institute of which there are now 143." I take his figure. You know better.

At present, technical institutes are already far above the level of the usual vocational training school. Many have programs calling for a good deal of theory in the physical sciences and for a knowledge of mathematics through at least the elements of calculus. These seem to be the local places for the production worker to get his training for automation.

Present estimates are that from two to five trained technicians will be needed for every engineer in an automated factory. If this is so, it seems obvious that there will have to be an important stepping up in the number of technical institutes and the number of students they can handle, since present day unautomated industry is snapping up all who graduate.

The interesting question to ask at this point is where are these facilities coming from? Does it comfort you to know that

you will not be technologically unemployed under the new technology? But we have to get some money for you. We have to get some qualified personnel for you, and above all, we have to change the American attitude of anti-intellectualism which is reflected by congressmen who attacked the Foundations in congressional hearings and refused to give them permission to answer.

We must get out of this anti-intellectualism. We also must do something with the infection at the high school level, where a child says: "Why should I take math?" . . . be a "drip" or a "jerk" or a "square," or whatever the current sneer word is against smartness and hard disciplined study. What's the recent remark of that young adult delinquent who said, when a distinguished American was pointed out to him as being a target toward which he might strive, "What kind of a dresser is he?" If all a child knows is what kind of clothes a man

wears, what are our value judgments, and why are they this way?

This condition may be due to the kind of television programs we have, the kind of movies we have, the kind of newspapers we have, the kind of magazines we have—where our system of values is debased for somebody's private pocketbook. And this becomes our problem, doesn't it, because with all the will in the world, the educator cannot do the things the technology requires him to do unless there is a change of public attitude and a change of our value judgments.

So with health, so with slum clearing and housing. . . . The disease we suffer is called cultural lag. It's our unwillingness, our inability, our outright refusal to meet the demands of our social and institutional relationships that our technology makes imperative. Now we must face these problems. We must face them together, face them constructively.

For Adults Only: An Extra-Curricular Program for Evening Students

Frederick G. Fox

A RICH new area of service has been opened to junior college deans in charge of student extra-curricular activities. Because of the steady growth in evening college enrollments—with some junior colleges now actually serving more students on their campuses at night than during the daylight hours—attention is being focused on the development of special programs to serve the interests of the more mature students attending evening classes.

At Los Angeles City College, where the enrollment in the Evening Division has increased from 2,500 to over 11,000 during the past eight years, a unique program of student activities has been developed to enrich the academic program and to provide social and cultural experiences outside the classroom that meet the needs and interests of the busy men and women who are pursuing their education at night. This program seems to attract an ever increasing segment of the student body each semester, despite the fact that those who attend evening classes usually hold full-time jobs and have other responsibilities that would appear to make it almost im-

possible for them to devote time to campus activities not specifically connected with their studies.

The success of the City College program to date has been due to the unusual type of student body organization and a program built around the interests expressed by the adult students themselves. It represents a break with tradition in an effort to overcome the problems of communication, stability, and continuity that plague most evening schools and that cause the typical day school type of student body organization to break down.

The evening student body organization of City College might be described as a "federation" of evening student campus clubs and societies, each group being entitled to two representatives on a Student Executive Board which elects its own officers each year. The student board handles all business and financial affairs for the evening student body and sponsors one or more major campus events each semester. The remainder of the extra-curricular program is planned and carried out by the several clubs and societies which receive financial assistance from the board for all activities open to the general student body.

There are several phases to the extra-curricular program of the evening student body. First, an appreciation of the im-

Author of several textbooks in business education, **FREDERICK G. FOX** is Dean of Los Angeles City College Evening Division. Formerly he was a correspondent for International News Service.

portance of cultural activities of various kinds as a necessary part of a college student's life is reflected in the generous allocation of the student body board to a lecture and concert fund each term. Nationally known lecturers and artists are brought to the campus by the student body every semester, and admission to all performances is free, though tickets are issued to regulate attendance so that a section of the college auditorium may be reserved for the general public, which is invited to share these programs free of charge.

Among the speakers and artists who have appeared on the evening college special events series to date have been U. S. Senator J. William Fulbright, philosopher F. S. C. Northrop, historian Will Durant, pianist Eugene List, columnist Dorothy Thompson, poet-dramatist Lord Edward Dunsay, novelist James Michener, and other distinguished persons in business, politics, the arts, and education.

A second phase of the extra-curricular program for evening students at City College places emphasis on opportunities for artistic expression on the part of the students themselves. Liberal allocations have been voted by the student board to underwrite opera and theater productions, for which the college is noted, as well as student musical performances, dance exhibitions, talent shows, an occasional television production, and other projects that provide opportunities for evening students to perform before the public. These events are sponsored by individual clubs but are open to all students who care to attend.

The various clubs join forces once a year to stage an annual Festival of Arts, usually scheduled during the spring se-

mester. This unique event opens with a ball, at which the Festival Queen is presented, and features a week of special programs, including an art exhibit, with prizes being awarded for outstanding paintings, drawings, ceramics, and other art objects produced by evening art students, a theater production by evening drama and dance students, a book exhibit, and a concert.

A third phase of the evening extra-curricular program is based on the theory that a community college should provide experiences for the student that have a pretty definite relationship to the life of the community in which the college is located. For this reason, a portion of the student body budget has been allocated for student body memberships in a variety of civic, cultural, and professional organizations active in the community, including the necessary funds to make it possible for student representatives to attend the meetings of these groups. It has, therefore, not been unusual to find City College evening students attending luncheon meetings of the Wilshire Chamber of Commerce, discussion meetings of the Los Angeles World Affairs Council, dinner meetings of the Personnel and Industrial Relations Association, special meetings of the Los Angeles Chamber of Commerce, and similar community organizations where they have come into personal contact with the leaders of the community who shape its destiny.

This phase of the program has also provided opportunities for evening students in certain fields to attend special conferences of technical and learned societies, which are generally happy to have mature college students attend their meetings and

often waive the usual conference fees to encourage their attendance. Students recommended by their instructors are reimbursed by the student body for any expenses incurred at such gatherings.

City College experience with the club federation type of student body organization, while it may at first appear to be somewhat undemocratic, has been encouraging thus far because interest and participation have increased steadily year by year. The various student clubs not only tend to revive themselves at the start of each new term but continue to expand their memberships, thereby bringing more students into active participation. The result is a stability and continuity not generally found under the typical form of student government organization.

Because the various student clubs provide the stimulus drive that make this type of student organization successful, perhaps a brief explanation of the function of each of the clubs would be of interest.

The first evening student club to be organized at City College was Crimson Key, which came into being as the result of requests by evening students for a program of social activities. It has since become the official service club of the evening college, and its members assist the administration and faculty each semester during the rush of the registration period, providing information, guides, messengers, clerical assistance, and meeting emergency situations as they develop. The club takes charge of all receptions, dinners, teas, and other social functions, providing the ushers for assemblies and lectures, and it performs all hospitality services for student social affairs. Its mem-

bers also participate in charitable works, including an annual fund raising campaign to send underprivileged children in the community to summer camps.

A second student group, Alpha Theta Omega, provides a program of activities of special interest to students in the field of the social sciences. Its members sponsor meetings throughout the year for the discussion of local, national, and international problems, open to all students on the campus. One of its recent special projects was the preparation and presentation of a television show on the eve of the elections designed to encourage local citizens to exercise the voting privilege, along with a discussion of some of the important issues on the ballot.

La Empressa de Los Pan-Americanos (the Pan-American Club) was formed at the request of evening students in supplementing their studies of the Spanish language through out-of-class activities that provide additional opportunity for the members to practice spoken and written Spanish. Portions of the club's business and social meetings are conducted in that language, and the officers maintain close contact with consular officials of the various Latin nations in the city who appear at club meetings to address students in both Spanish and English. Several Spanish language motion pictures are presented for the benefit of language classes on the campus each term, with the remainder of the club meetings devoted to topics dealing with the cultural, economic, and historic backgrounds of the Spanish speaking nations. The club also sponsors weekend trips for its members and other interested students to locations of historic interest in

California and Mexico, including visits to the always popular bull fights.

A fourth evening student organization, formed to promote interest and participation in the theater and associated arts, is the evening division Theatre Arts Group. Members assist the drama and music departments with their stage presentation, sponsor lectures by experts in the theater field, and provide "oscars" for the best performances of the year in the college theater. One of its recent special projects was the planning and presentation of a television program featuring interpretative dancing by City College students on a local commercial station.

One of the newest evening student organizations on the campus is the Psychology Club. This group publishes a newspaper summarizing recent developments in the field of psychology, sponsors monthly meetings with guest speakers and demonstrations dealing with such subjects as group dynamics, leadership training, psychosomatics, hypnosis, clinical psychology, and juvenile delinquency. It also arranges field trips for its members and other interested students for the purpose of observing the application of psychology in the community in police work, veteran rehabilitation, retarded children, and medical facilities for mental health. A recent special project was a research study carried on by the members for a local social service agency that lacked the funds and manpower to undertake this much-needed study.

As had been anticipated, the success of the special interest clubs and their willingness to serve the school as a whole as

well as the individual members has attracted the attention and interest of a large segment of the evening student body, and requests are now on file for the formation of additional clubs to serve students interested in music, art, and other fields.

Both day and evening members of the City College faculty have expressed their pleasure over the enthusiastic reception they have received whenever they have approached these various evening student groups for assistance in organizing and financing special projects, such as an annual exhibit of fine books, lectures and receptions sponsored by a faculty committee on cultural relations, a program for the exchange of books with foreign colleges and universities, an annual business show, and similar undertakings.

Those who have been associated with this program in the evening college for the past eight years have been gratified by the results. It has enriched the academic program by supplementing classroom instruction and making it more meaningful for the students. Because the club type of student body organization provides many more opportunities for leadership experience than would be possible under a single unit arrangement, the faculty has also experienced the pleasure of observing the individual development of a great many potential future leaders in the community who gained leadership experience as officers in the various clubs. In short, the program has helped the faculty and administration to provide a more effective educational program on the campus.

Basic Elements in Defining General Education

David R. Stone and Harold C. Bateman

PROGRAMS of general education are so varied in structure that comprehensive definition is difficult. Because the particular type of application of general education being discussed at any given time is thus often ambiguous, comparison and evaluation is complex.

This article proposes to define general education first by describing what it is not, and then by outlining it in terms of three basic elements.

WHAT GENERAL EDUCATION IS NOT

Here it will be noted that none of the areas to be mentioned gives exclusive support to general education. At the same time, points of contact are not lacking, since support may be found for both "specialized" and "general" education. The complete definition of general education would include reference to these supporting principles, while not claiming them as exclusive. The following are areas where support is not exclusive:

(1) No particular psychological school supports general education exclusively, and support for both general and specialized education can be found in learning theory. It may be true that general edu-

cation may as a rule follow certain teaching trends, but such cannot be claimed as a unique feature.

For example, the "association" school of psychology as seen in the work of Thorndike and Hull would stress reward as primary in the learning process. This traditional approach is related historically to specialism, but has important implications for any teacher.

Field theory, as seen in the work of Tolman and Lewin, stresses the cognitive aspect of learning, emphasizing integration and goal oriented behavior. It is historically related to the general education movement, but has implications often utilized in the teaching of the specialist.

At different periods, and with different assumptions, psychological movements have both supported and been critical of general education.

(2) While philosophic support can be found (as with psychology), no philosophic school gives exclusive preference to general education. Support from philosophic schools is seen where Idealism stresses cultural continuity and the personality values of extended acquaintance with the universe, and from Pragmatism in that preparation for change is found in breadth of knowledge. On the other hand, Idealism, Realism, and Pragmatism also stress the value of extended special training, where the individual makes his contribu-

DAVID R. STONE is an Associate Professor in the School of Education at Utah State Agricultural College, Logan, Utah.

HAROLD E. BATEMAN is an Instructor in Social Sciences and General Education, Weber College, Ogden, Utah.

tion to the group by providing parts of the total picture.

(3) No particular teaching method is unique to general education. While it has often, probably most often, been related to the methods referred to as "dynamic," "progressive," etc., such are not the exclusive properties of general education and cannot be used to differentiate it from specialized education.

Teachers at all levels of education may use any known method to some degree. Projects, problem-centered, lecture, or group methods of all kinds may be used by teachers in either general or specialized education.

(4) While it is true that well defined objectives should and may underline the course structure of a school, objectives outlined by high-level professional groups in this country have not necessarily favored one extreme (specialism) over the other (generalism). The general education approach is simply a way of curricular and course organization which aims to achieve a series of desirable objectives better than specialism.

THREE BASIC ELEMENTS IN GENERAL EDUCATION

General education is achieved primarily in terms of course organization and curricular mechanics.

The most profound schemes, or the simplest, must be resolved to a course—curricular offering of some sort. It is true that problems relating to a certain kind of instructor, special training, methods of organizing content, or ways of selling the program, are important points to evaluate and consider, but such problems are not unique to general education. The

kind of curricular offering may be. It is in the curricular offering that the kind of education is to be found, whether general, specialized, or in varying combinations.

The three variables considered here in defining general education are: (1) Time placement, (2) Area patterns, and (3) Course fusion. These are often referred to in terms of order, coverage, and integration.

Time Placement: Programs of general education may extend through the entire educational experience of the student, or through a chosen part. A common plan at the college level is to have two years of "lower division," where breadth in education is stressed, with the following years being devoted to specialization. Another program is to offer general education (in the form of group requirements) throughout the four college years, allowing students to specialize at any time during the period, so that the two programs run concurrently for four years.

Area Patterns: Offerings in general education are usually observed in three phases, corresponding to elementary, high school, and college levels as follows: (1) *Tool Subjects*, which offer the traditional preparatory materials; (2) *Core Curricula*, which are based on certain subjects which are thought desirable for all, and often given in terms of a "constants plus variables" curriculum; and (3) *Subject Matter Areas* where courses are chosen representing the range of human knowledge. These areas are often seen in such divisions as language and arts (humanities), social sciences, exact sciences, and biological sciences. At the same time, such courses as physical education and compo-

sition are often still regarded as core courses which all must take.

Course Fusion: General education has been much concerned with breadth alone or mere degree of coverage. In addition, it has also been believed that simultaneous or correlated use of concepts from a variety of areas may be a more powerful tool than specialism alone.

This element of general education revolves around the concept of transfer of training, and involves such questions as: "Shall we teach directly?", "How many identical elements should be used?", "How can what is learned in one subject be used in another?", "How can retroactive inhibition be avoided?", etc.

Course fusion is seen in varying degrees and is achieved in many ways, including: (Always trying to avoid con-fusion!)

(a) The problem approach, in which the student is given a problem which may require information from several fields to solve.

(b) "Bull-session" fusion, where the student, through his own personal activity, may relate subjects apart from any particular curricular organization.

(c) The sequence survey course, which may have a wide variety of concepts from one or more areas presented in unit order. (This often happens, even when the integrated survey type is attempted.)

(d) The integrated survey course, where the attempt is to relate three or more concept areas concurrently.

(e) The "two course blend," where two courses from ordinarily separated areas are taught as one, for example, literature and grammar.

(f) Building on prerequisites, in which an attempt is made to relate definitely one course to another. (This procedure may be seen as a narrow application of general education even in a specialized field.)

THE NEED FOR GENERAL AND SPECIALIZED EDUCATION

Where these kinds of education are seen in terms of the needs of society, four broad divisions appear: (1) the professional specialist, (2) men who have blended one or more areas, such as in psychosomatic medicine, social psychology, neuro-biology, etc., (3) the "general practitioner," as seen in some teachers or medical men who may handle the large numbers of "normal" students and problems, referring selected cases, and (4) the administrator who attempts to co-ordinate and provide channels of communication so maximum transfer and efficiency may be obtained. Such a division of labor suggests that what is lacking in the educational background of a given individual may be functionally supplied by the co-ordinating social organization. The effect on the individual and his own thinking is a matter for further study. It would appear that for most citizens, a hermit-like specialization or the shallow veneer of a superficial education are to be avoided.

Revolution in Modern Language Teaching at Bradford

Richard P. Merrill

BRADFORD Junior College is somewhat unique among the junior colleges of the United States in that for 153 years it has been primarily concerned with liberal arts rather than vocational or professional subjects. However, contrary to the situation found on most traditionally liberal arts college campuses, modern language courses have been offered as electives to be chosen or disregarded by students at their own wish. While it is natural for students who choose a liberal arts program also to choose a few courses in a modern language to round out their course of study, it is amazing that two-thirds of the 300 students now enrolled at Bradford are carrying at least one course in a modern language. Only in the area of English where, of course, freshman courses are required is this enrollment exceeded.

One of the outstanding factors in the popularity of foreign language study can be attributed directly to the enthusiastic understanding of Bradford's faculty under the guiding influence of Bradford's President, Miss Dorothy M. Bell. Internationally minded, and alert to the necessity of today's students understanding other peoples and cultures, Miss Bell has encour-

aged a truly international spirit at Bradford. International projects are sponsored by students' clubs. Many scholarships have been made available to foreign girls. Nearly a third of the junior college group at Reid Hall in Paris this past year were Bradford graduates. Bradford sponsors a summer seminar in Mexico, and this past summer 14 students were enrolled at the Instituto Allende where they studied Spanish, history, and Mexican civilization.

Two years ago, aware of the growing enrollment in modern language courses, Bradford began to look at other colleges and secondary schools to insure that it was offering the best that could be provided in modern language instruction. A committee was appointed to investigate recent technical developments in the teaching of languages.

It quickly became apparent that the foreign language program at Bradford would be more effective if the college were to construct some sort of language laboratory. Primary emphasis would need to be placed on teaching the student to speak and understand the language while maintaining the other traditional values of reading and writing.

The experience of recent war years had illustrated only too plainly that students were not properly trained to understand and to speak a foreign language. It was

RICHARD P. MERRILL is Head of the Spanish Department at Bradford Junior College, Bradford, Massachusetts, and directed the Bradford Junior College Seminar in Mexico.

not enough to know how to use the imperfect subjunctive, nor to have a smattering of knowledge of the Golden Age or the deeds of Charlemagne. Students must be able to understand the spoken language and to converse in the language with a reasonable degree of fluency. Outstanding writers and travelers have been saying for years that the United States is losing prestige at an alarming rate abroad because of the inability or reluctance of United States citizens to speak any language but English while traveling or working in foreign countries.

Laboratories in the physical and natural sciences have long been taken for granted, and it seems logical for a laboratory to assume its place in the language field. After research, examination of the best existing facilities, particularly those of the John Burroughs School in St. Louis, and conversations with others in their trial and error methods, Bradford determined to begin with a language laboratory of 18 booths, each equipped with tape recorders and listening facilities, and three master recorders, featuring three channels of communication to the individual booths, since French, Spanish, and German are involved.

The language laboratory was located in a special room which had been properly treated acoustically and provided with a ventilating system. The total cost of the language laboratory at Bradford was \$8,575. The cost per booth was \$475. Funds for the laboratory were provided by the alumnae in their program of annual giving. Considerable money was saved by using the services of a local electrical concern and through the careful planning of the Dean of the College,

Frederick C. Ferry, Jr., who had a keen insight into the particular scientific problems involved.

The language laboratory takes care of two primary needs in the study of foreign languages at Bradford: ability to understand the spoken tongue and ability to speak it. In a recent story to Bradford alumnae, Dean Ferry described the laboratory as follows:

"A student is isolated in a booth with earphones on her head. The master tapes not only bring her the voice of her instructor, but they funnel into her ears the voices and sounds of other people and recorded events. Because she is the only one in the booth, she finds it not only easy, but almost unavoidable, to concentrate on what is being said. She does not associate a single voice with the whole language, as must be the case when a single instructor is involved, but comes to think of the language as the voice of a people. As she listens, she also speaks. She may speak into the empty air as she recites in accordance with instructions coming through from tapes, or as her instructor speaks to her directly through a microphone. She may read passages aloud from a text in her own hands, or she may recite material as instructed. At first she is likely to do this without recording. As time passes, however, tape recorders are brought into use. Her voice then is recorded in such a way that she hears her own voice and the voice she is trying to imitate on one tape. In playing back the material she finds contrast, and through contrast she sees errors to be corrected.

"One of the great values of this approach is, of course, that the shy girl as

well as the bold finds it easy to speak. Instead of reciting occasionally in the classroom, she talks almost constantly. She lives in a foreign world of her own in the booth, uninterrupted by other people. Since no one else is listening to her voice, she speaks without hesitation and without embarrassment. She finds greater concentration possible. For this reason, if for no other, she will learn more rapidly to understand and to speak the language. There are, of course, other virtues in this approach. Her accent quickly improves, and even in the field of grammar and composition her progress is speeded up."

From the instructors' point of view, the teaching of foreign languages takes on a whole new approach. After the first few days, during which the students must be instructed in the use of the tapes, recorders, and other technical apparatus, the whole approach to foreign languages is centered around the language laboratory. The students become accustomed to the mechanical approach with amazing rapidity. A spirit of outstanding cooperation seems to prevail. Living in a machine age, the scientific appeal of wires and tapes seems to give many girls the initial incentive. Then suddenly they find that they are beginning to learn something. The privacy of the booths and the lack of distraction make it impossible for them not to learn. The instructor finds that in reply to his questions, the students use phrases and idioms, rather than word by word translation, as was the previous tendency. For the first time the students can be given meaningful "phonetic" homework.

Mlle. Genevieve Wantiez, head of the French department, carried a tape recorder with her to Europe the past two

summers and spent many weeks in recording voices of children, older people, radio programs, and the like. Students from France supplement the voices of the instructors in the French department. In Spanish instruction, the voices of students from Spain and Latin America attending Bradford are recorded to give a variety of accent. Thus, a girl does not hear a single voice over and over until she identifies it as the voice of a given nation or tongue, but she hears a true representation of the spoken language.

At Bradford one classroom hour out of every three in the elementary and intermediate courses is spent in the laboratory, and students sign up for two extra hours per week for laboratory preparation. The girls are privileged to go to the laboratory in their free time. The variety of tapes and all equipment is at their disposal. Inasmuch as the three master machines provide three listening channels to each booth, French, Spanish, and German students, or any variety of combinations of language classes, can be in the laboratory at the same time without confusion.

Students in the first-year Spanish class used the laboratory to help them learn their lines in a short play by Lope de Vega. Portions of the exercises from grammar books are put on tapes, and vocabulary lists are featured in meaningful sentences.

Tapes are economical and easily repaired if they break. The students become enthusiastic with their progress. In one respect the language laboratory furnishes each student with a full-time private teacher.

This revolution in the teaching of

modern languages has been amazing to students and teachers. To that classic combination of an enthusiastic teacher plus a small class of interested students has been added the third great factor—the modern language laboratory. And

even though foreign language study is not compulsory at Bradford, the foreign language enrollment for the 1956-57 academic year has every indication of being larger than ever.

Building Research Competencies at the Undergraduate Level

Berlie J. Fallon

PERHAPS no objective of higher education could be defended on a sounder basis than that of encouraging critical thinking. The educated person, in solving the problems of everyday life, is called upon frequently to make choices and decisions. In every instance there is a point at which the individual proceeds in one of two directions: (1) he chooses or decides in a random fashion without weighing reasons or consequences, or (2) he carefully weighs the background facts, investigates courses of action, and evaluates possible consequences before making a decision. The latter procedure is the characteristic response of the educated individual and is a compound of inquiry, curiosity, and purpose. The ability to think critically is the major tool of the true scholar, both within and without the classroom.

It is quite possible that the typical undergraduate may feel that research is the province of the graduate student or the research scientist in the laboratory. Mention of a "research paper" may confuse or even frighten undergraduates. "Term papers" may be less confusing or frightening, although many students are lacking in the ability to state the purposes of

these. To many, both "research papers" and "term papers" represent a hurdle of work, more or less routine in nature, which must be cleared in order to receive a grade in a course. The author, during the fall and spring semesters of the 1955-1956 school year, conducted an experiment with undergraduate students to test this hypothesis: Undergraduates are capable, if given adequate guidance, of producing research papers of high quality. A goal of the experiment was to build constructive attitudes toward research and to initiate development of basic research competencies.

As a means of determining student attitudes and needs, 86 students at the sophomore, junior, and senior levels were asked to complete a brief questionnaire. Table I shows some of the results.

Having obtained some background information concerning this particular group of students, the next step was to decide upon the role of the instructor in providing the necessary assistance and guidance to insure that these students would have meaningful research experiences during the semester. Should the student assume all the responsibility for his developmental experiences in research? This idea was discarded on the grounds that a limited amount of time made it uneco-

BERLIE J. FALLON is Assistant Professor of Education, Texas Technological College Lubbock, Texas.

TABLE I

Inventory of 86 Students' Research Needs

Questionnaire Item	Pattern of Responses	
1. The term papers I have written in college have been: (check one)		
a. Of little value to me as an educational experience	29	34%
b. Of some value to me as an educational experience	48	56%
c. Of great value to me as an educational experience	9	10%
Total	86	
2. The guidance I have received in writing research papers has been: (check one)		
a. adequate	11	13%
b. inadequate	75	86%
Total	86	
3. If your response to item 2 was "inadequate," please check areas in which you believe more guidance is needed:		
a. selection and delimitation of a problem	71	82%
b. location and classification of source data	51	59%
c. format of research papers	56	65%
d. organization of research papers	62	72%
e. technique of making footnotes and quotes	47	54%
f. arranging bibliography	65	75%

nomical. The instructor chose to share his training in research methods and to provide the students with a reasonable amount of guidance and assistance.

During the spring semester, a research guide was prepared and distributed to those students interested in writing research papers in partial fulfillment of the requirements of Education 330, Principles of Education. The introduction to the guide dealt with the format and organization of acceptable research papers. The importance of critical thinking based on data from authoritative sources was stressed. Following this section of the

guide was a concise and simplified treatise on the writing of a research paper. The guide was arranged to fulfill students needs for guidance as shown in item 3 of Table 1.

A noticeable change in student attitude toward this particular requirement of the course became evident during the spring semester. Increasing numbers of students during conference hours expressed appreciation for the guide and showed a keener interest in discussing methods of approach to various types of problems. For most of the students, the guide provided the motivation to attempt to do superior projects.

Near the end of the semester, an interesting deviation from the procedure of the fall semester was noted. Greater numbers of students made appointments to deliver their research projects to the instructor in his office rather than to follow the procedure of handing papers to the instructor at the end of the regular class period. In a majority of these cases, the motivation was pride in a task well done and a desire to exhibit and discuss the work. The quality of many of these projects compared very favorably with that of projects accomplished by graduate students during the same semester.

The technique of initiating the student into research as described in this article is presented not as a new idea or a complete solution to the problem. To assume that a research guide motivates all students would be a vast over-simplification. Provision of the guide, however, seems to be a step in the right direction. It leads the student to the threshold of the research process free of many of his former fears and misgivings and should prove a great help in courses where library re-

search is considered essential. Attaining the student's friendship and goodwill, which may be a relatively simple matter for many instructors, is also necessary; motivating the student to strive for superior intellectual achievement, however, is more complex. Certainly there are implications here for the instructor which go far beyond mere provision of guidance concerning methods of research.

This is an age of tensions and misunderstandings at the individual, local, state, national, and international levels. Confusion is multiplied when people make decisions and act without taking time to obtain and analyze the facts. Furthering the development of objective attitudes and research competencies at the undergraduate level in the college or university, the last purely academic proving ground for most future leaders, is a safeguard against limiting the potency of man's greatest tool, his creative and analytical intelligence. This important obligation rests with every teacher engaged in the process of educating today's youth.

Budgeting the Junior College Student Newspaper

Wallace Graves

HOW MUCH should a newspaper cost? In metropolitan areas a printed armful sells for a nickel, but in smaller towns with smaller circulations, newspapers cost more money for less bulk. This is strikingly true on college campuses, where very thin newspapers cost the student body sometimes 25 or 30 cents a copy.

A survey of the ten public junior colleges in the state of Washington, where printing costs are relatively high, shows that nine schools publish printed newspapers, and of this group, the per issue per student costs run from 6 to 29 cents a copy, with 17 cents as average.

The average junior college in Washington which conducts an active journalism program has an enrollment of 441 and prints a total of 522 copies of each issue, the extras going for public relations distribution. This average college publishes during the school year 13 issues of a four-page (tabloid size) newspaper. The total newspaper budget is \$1,153, of which \$798, or 70 per cent, comes from student body funds. The remaining \$355 during the year is derived from local and national advertisers. Student body money for sup-

port of the newspaper comes from fees required of all full-time day students. Of the \$27 students on the average pay a year to support student activities, including social events, publications, and sports, \$1.80 is for the newspaper.

An extremely wide range of printing methods and costs is reflected in various journalism programs. Six colleges print papers on newsprint, with the normal newspaper format, tabloid size (about 11-by 16-inch pages); two others print smaller offset papers, one on-campus, the other off-campus; another, not included in the statistics in this survey, uses \$140 per year of student funds to publish a daily two-page mimeographed bulletin; and one new junior college is just setting up its program.

The "best buy" among these newspapers, excluding the mimeographed bulletin, is the Olympic College of Bremerton newspaper which is printed on an on-campus offset press. Olympic undertakes 28 to 30 issues during the year, six pages each, measuring 7 by 9 inches. Olympic's students enjoy this newspaper at a cost of six cents per issue, per student, from a total student body annual cost of \$1,162, with an additional \$310 derived from advertising.

Conversely, Skagit Valley Junior College at Mount Vernon, which solicits little advertising for its newspaper and chooses

A former newspaperman, WALLACE GRAVES is Director of Student Publications, Lower Columbia Junior College, Longview, Washington. Dr. Graves received the Ph.D. degree in English from the University of Washington.

the more costly but more professional appearance of a conventional tabloid size newsprint paper, publishes 12 issues annually at a cost of \$3.50 per student, or 28 cents per issue per student. Wenatchee Junior College publishes only four issues yearly, on a budget of \$400 with no advertising, for its 340 students. This figures \$1.17 annually, or a relatively high 29 cents per issue per student.

The most ambitious program, money-wise, is conducted by Lower Columbia Junior College at Longview, which attempts 15 issues of tabloid size newspaper on a student budget of \$400, with the remaining \$1,200 of the total budget of

nine cents a copy, with a high measure of support demanded of local businessmen through advertising.

The results of this study suggest that the junior college of about 500 full-time enrollees who want a newsprint tabloid paper that "looks like a newspaper," as opposed to the offset process on thick smooth paper, must be prepared to pick up about two-thirds of the printing bill, with only one-third coming from local and national advertisers. The cost per issue per student is geared closely to the number of copies printed, since it is much cheaper per copy to print 1,000, for example, than 250. Thus, for a school of only 250 students, the readers must be prepared to pay, through fees, perhaps 25 cents per copy (in the West), while a school of 800 students can put out the same newspaper at about ten cents per copy.

A college fortunate enough to have a vocational printshop program can make sizeable savings. For example, Grays Harbor Junior College at Aberdeen, which offers a two-year sequence of printing courses, manages a smaller-than-tabloid paper of 13 issues at a total budget of only \$400. This makes possible an eight cent per issue per student cost, with no assistance from advertising revenue, though the size of the paper is somewhat smaller than the other tabloids. This suggests that a junior college which integrates vocational-printing with an academic-journalism program can get the most for its money. If this combination is supplemented by sales of advertising, the college can offer a variety of student training and at the same time publish a professional newspaper at low cost.

NEWSPAPER BUDGETS IN WASHINGTON
STATE JUNIOR COLLEGES

	High	Low	Avg.
Full-time fall enrollment count	725	250	441
Total newspaper budget	\$1,600	\$400	\$1,153
Student contribution	\$1,400	\$400	\$ 798
Advertising revenue	\$1,200		\$ 355
Annual cost per student	\$ 3.50	\$1.02	\$ 1.80
Issues published annually	28*	4	13
Cost per issue per student	\$.29	\$.08	\$.17
Per cent of cost borne by students	100%	25%	70%†

* This high number occurs with an on-campus offset press. The highest number of newsprint tabloids that "look like a newspaper" is 16 annually.

† When this figure is weighted by the number of students enrolled at each institution, it rises to 77 per cent, since a greater proportionate expense of the total budget can be borne by students at larger institutions.

\$1,600 derived from advertising. On such a schedule, students pay the equivalent of

Eight Criteria of the Effective Community College

Robert Monroe Weiss

The idea of a college dedicated to meeting people's needs is not new to Americans. As early as 1853, for instance, Horace Greeley and William H. Seward proposed that New York City should have a People's College offering working people instruction in the practical arts. But the time was not yet ripe for the support of an institution which would provide the laboring classes with this kind of higher education. The college was opposed by those who feared that it would bring the lower and the aristocratic groups too close together. One editorial in a leading conservative New York newspaper asserted that the same man could not adequately both work with his hands and pursue a course of study. Furthermore, it stated:

If one end attained by the proposed People's College would be, as the *Tribune* hints it would, to abrogate that system in which each man has his place, and looks deferentially up to his superiors, still more do we deprecate its establishment.¹

Despite such antagonism, American society implemented such a revolutionary idea in the community college movement of this century. Beginning as a means to extend the thirteenth and fourteenth years of formal education to those whose requirements *were not being* satisfied by the

frequently larger, more distant, and more academic liberal arts colleges, it concentrated on providing both general and semi-professional education for those who either did not want, could not afford, or did not need, four years of college. Yet, it soon became apparent that there was a lack of good local four-year colleges. With the added impetus of the growth of adult education, Americans soon found that they had a higher educational institution which, much like the Danish folk school, was uniquely dedicated to serving its particular community.

Today, the community college is at a turning point. During the years after World War II, there was a mushrooming of such schools. Frequently, they grew out of local junior colleges. Too often, however, they were viewed as existing merely to alleviate overcrowded state universities. As the capacities of these state schools increase, community colleges are faced with enrollment problems. Some tend to revert to their junior college status. Others become little more than new liberal arts colleges, competing for students with the older institutions of that type. Although often retaining the name of community college, many schools are really only liberal arts colleges, or junior colleges, or vocational schools. Now, more than ever,

ROBERT MONROE WEISS is Assistant Professor of Education, Colorado State College of Education, Greeley.

¹ Untitled editorial, *Morning Courier and New York Enquirer*, September 22, 1853, p. 2.

it seems necessary to clarify the significance of the actual community college.

The meaning of the community college lies primarily with its aim—meeting the needs of the people in the locality in which it functions. But the significance of the community college cannot rest solely on its laudatory and visionary goal. Good intentions are still to be judged by the actions they produce. The value of the community college lies in its ability to translate its worthy aim into concrete desirable results. Since the concern, then, is with the effective community college, the practical implications of its lofty goal might well be examined. From such an inquiry, eight criteria of this school might be outlined.

1. THE EFFECTIVE COMMUNITY COLLEGE
MEETS NEEDS IN ALL AREAS OF
COMMUNITY LIVING

The community college is dedicated to meeting needs. The means it uses fall under the general heading of educational. Some persons fallaciously limit the function of the community college only to providing the schooling in a community. However, others maintain that it is the place of the community college to meet in all areas of community living all those needs that can be tackled by educational means. These two points of view are not identical.

While the first approach tends to bind the task of the college to inherited concepts of education, the second perspective allows education to be defined in the specific social milieu in which it will be used. The former position stresses courses in bodies of knowledge which have been *previously* organized; the latter stand em-

phasizes an organization which at least takes account of the purposes of those who are *presently* involved. While the first conception makes education into an end in itself, the second view is based on the democratic premise that man is an end and that education is a means to be used for people's welfare. Since the community college is dedicated by aim to meeting needs, it must use education as a means. The fully functioning community college will employ its educational tools in all areas of community living.

It was with this in mind that the conversion or reversion of community colleges to vocational schools, or liberal arts colleges, or junior colleges was questioned. At any one point, technical, semi-professional or vocational training, or academic, liberal arts or general education, or a terminal two-year college program, or adult education might well fill a community's needs. However, when the college perpetuates and institutionalizes any one curriculum or a definite combination of these programs as adequate for all time, it negates and destroys the vibrant adaptability and responsiveness at the heart of the community college ideal.

2. THE EFFECTIVE COMMUNITY COLLEGE
CENTERS ON PEOPLE AND THEIR UNI-
VERSAL, SOCIETAL, COMMUNITY,
AND INDIVIDUAL NEEDS

Needs are always partly the property of living organisms, and the concern here is with people. When one ascribes needs to such structural units as a community or a society, he errs if he thinks of these wants as belonging to these entities regardless of the people who comprise them. Societal needs, for example, are always

those of the people of the society. The same holds for community needs. To personify and give life to some entity outside of the democratic end—the individual—is to transform fallaciously the individual into a means. People then serve “societal” needs regardless of their own wants. Serving society for its own sake leads too readily to serving the governing body of that society—the state.²

In ascribing needs to the “society” and the “community,” one frequently errs by concomitantly limiting people’s needs to only their unique “individual” ones. Needs are always the properties of *living organisms* and the physical and social environments in which humans are always involved. Very often, the wants result because of particular world, societal, or community conditions. To dismiss the environment in considering the problems of people is, in effect, to neglect the people. An effective community college must not only be people-centered, but it must also help individuals satisfy their universal, societal, community, and particular needs.

3. THE EFFECTIVE COMMUNITY COLLEGE IS GUIDED BY THE WELFARE OF THE WHOLE COMMUNITY RATHER THAN MERELY BY THE SPECIAL INTERESTS IN THE COMMUNITY

Needs are always the property of some people. When discussing needs, one

should always inquire whose wants they are. For example, industrial needs could denote the needs of the owner, or of the managers, or of the laborers, or of the consumers or, when they exist, the industrial wants of the whole community. These various needs are not necessarily identical. It should be clear which ones are meant.

Many social, political, and economic pressures operate on a community college so that while it can probably meet some of the needs of the people much of the time, it will probably not be continuously able to meet all needs of all people. Yet, the latter is its goal. In times when choice among the needs to be faced is necessary, a real community college will be concerned with those needs which are most representative of all the people of the community. In short, a true community college is guided by the principle of the general welfare rather than by special interests. When what is good for Special Machines runs counter to what is good for the whole community, the college by name has its stand.

4 THE EFFECTIVE COMMUNITY COLLEGE PRACTICES PREVENTIVE EDUCATION IN THE COMMUNITY IN ADDITION TO REMEDIAL EDUCATION IN THE SCHOOL

Needs are always expressed by and through the cultural medium. The culture may be viewed as the material culture—the physical tools of society, and the non-material culture—the ideas, customs, mores, and folkways of society.³ By means of the culture, the simple biological drives of infants become transformed

² The theory that the whole is greater than the parts is too often mistaken to exclude the parts from the whole. It is because that approach stresses the total to the exclusion of the individual that it is so aptly termed totalitarian. Nazi Germany and Communist Russia have demonstrated how such an organismic theory of the state has led in practice to the scapegoating of parts of a society for the supposed welfare of the whole society.

³ William Fielding Ogburn, *Social Change* (New York: Viking Press, 1950), pp. 202–203.

into the complex social needs and motives of children and adults.⁴ These culturally-conditioned wants are always the ones being considered; one commits the fallacy of reduction if one deals with them as the simple biological drives from which they arose and upon which they are no longer dependent.⁵

The effective community college will take account of this socialization process in delineating and in responding to needs. It will educate both in the community and in the school. This means some emphasis on adult education and on the out-of-class role of the college faculty. By helping the individuals in a community become more sensitive to those miseducative community factors (material and ideological) which make school re-education necessary, the functioning community college carries on preventive education in the community, in addition to schooling for remedial purposes.

5. THE EFFECTIVE COMMUNITY COLLEGE AIDS IN ASSESSING THE NEEDS IN THE COMMUNITY AND ALERTS THE PEOPLE TO THE FINDINGS

In order to be discussed, needs must be recognized by someone. However, because they go unnoticed it does not mean that they do not exist. In the terminology

of educationists, the phrase "felt needs" recurs persistently. It is used so frequently, often to annoyance, because it indicates that there are also "unfelt needs," those of which one is not conscious. The effective community college aids in determining what needs exist in the community and in sensitizing the people to all of the possibilities.

An adequate procedure in the assessment of needs seems to carry the following implications: (1) utilizing a variety of methods for measuring needs; (2) employing both educators of broad background and citizens who are representative of the total community; (3) taking account of, if not carrying on, research on the problem of recognizing needs. However, as both John Dewey and John L. Childs have pointed out, the shoemaker may know how to fix the shoe, but the wearer knows where it pinches. Educators should beware of prescribing the needs of people. On the other hand, educators should also be cautious of naïveté in always accepting the stated wants as the real ones. Rationalization can and does occur.

6. THE EFFECTIVE COMMUNITY COLLEGE USES ITS EDUCATIONAL TOOLS TO CHANGE BOTH INDIVIDUALS AND THE CULTURE

Meeting needs implies change. A need arises because of a disequilibrium in the individual and his culture. The wants of people and the demands of the society are not always in harmony. The true community college uses its educational tools to aid in modifying the individual and the situation. The person will, of course, determine what will be the desired change.

⁴ Chapter Ten, "A Theory of Child Socialization," in Lloyd Allen Cook's and Elaine Forsythe Cook's *A Sociological Approach to Education* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1950), stresses the significant functioning of roles and status in the socialization process.

⁵ Gordon Allport presented this conception of "functional autonomy"—"activity of new units may not depend on the activity from which they came"—in his *Personality* (New York: Holt Co., 1917), pp. 190-207.

The community college cannot bring about alterations in the culture except through individuals, but a variation in the culture will, because of the socialization process, transform people.

The real community college educates persons both to adapt to the culture and to change it. A community college whose guidance program, for example, only fits students to given situations not only makes man a means to the pseudo-end of culture but also assumes a static society. The two-way process of adjustment is then reduced to the one-way action of accommodation. It seems that it was with this understanding that Jesse Parker Bogue, Executive Secretary of the American Association of Junior Colleges, wrote in his book, *The Community College*:

Adjustments to environments and changes for the better in human nature do not preclude the fact that environment, too, must be modified as far as possible so that it may become the servant as well as the master of people.⁶

7. THE EFFECTIVE COMMUNITY COLLEGE
CREATES AWARENESS IN THE COMMUN-
ITY OF ALL THE POSSIBLE WAYS
THAT NEEDS MAY BE MET

In our society, needs may be fulfilled in a variety of ways. Choice of which way they are to be satisfied should lie in the hands of those involved. However, such a selection involves a knowledge of the alternatives which might be employed. A genuine community college sensitizes the community to the different options and tries to increase the range of possibilities considered. Furthermore, it attempts to

help those concerned delineate the long-range and constructive methods from the expedient and temporary ones. This involves some focus on the potential effects of the various means under deliberation.

8. THE EFFECTIVE COMMUNITY COLLEGE
IS CONCERNED WITH WHAT IS DESIRABLE
IN ADDITION TO WHAT EXISTS, AND IT
THUS FACES THE UNSETTLED AND
THE CONTROVERSIAL IN ADDITION
TO THE SETTLED AND THE
FACTUAL

Finally, it should be noted that choosing an alternative in the satisfying of needs involves not only a knowledge of (1) what the *want* is, and (2) all the possible ways of meeting the need, but also of (3) what is a desirable result. People may concur about what wants should be faced. They may also be in accord as to the different means which might be used. Yet, they may vary as to what action to take because they do not agree on what is preferred. The community college should help people evaluate individually *desired* results in terms of what would be a socially *desirable* effect. A true community college will then help people look at *what should be* as well as *what is*. Thus, the real community college is committed by function to dealing with the unsettled and the controversial in addition to the settled and the factual.

These eight criteria are not meant to be the exclusive property of the community college. Other educational institutions might employ any of these features, but the eight seem essential to the real community college. Underlying these eight criteria is the assumption that such a college has at its core a fundamental interest

⁶ Jesse Parker Bogue, *The Community College* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1950), p. 152.

in community problems and welfare and a stake in the development of a community feeling.

No institution is perfect. Yet, in seeking improvement, community college educators might well assay how successfully their school fulfills the eight criteria:

1. Uses education as a tool to meet needs in all areas of community living.
2. Is concerned primarily with people and their universal, societal, community, and individual needs.
3. Is guided by the principle of the general welfare rather than by merely the special interests in the community.
4. Practices preventive education in the community in addition to providing schooling for remedial purposes.
5. Continually aids in assessing the needs in the community, and sensitizes the community to the findings.
6. Changes by educational means both the culture and the individual.
7. Creates awareness in the community of all the possible ways that needs may be met.
8. Is concerned with what is desirable in addition to what exists and, in the process, faces the unsettled and controversial in addition to the settled and the factual.

In his book, *The College and the Community*, Baker Brownell, Professor of Philosophy at Northwestern University,

pointed out that most educational institutions fail because they operate in a social vacuum and because they make education a "delayed function"—a preparation for later life.⁷ The community college is supposedly not encumbered by these disadvantages. In addition, the needs approach presumably operates on the level of the real interests and motivations of the people involved rather than on the level of the imposed incentives of *purely* a knowledge approach. The prospects, then, of the community college were most adequately stated by the President's Commission on Higher Education when it wrote:

The potential effects of the community college in keeping intellectual curiosity alive in out-of-school citizens, of stimulating their zest for learning, of improving the quality of their lives as individuals and citizens are limited only by the vision, the energy, and the ingenuity of the college staff—and by the size of the college budget. But the people will take care of the budget if the staff provides them with vital and worthwhile educational services.⁸

⁷ Baker Brownell, *The College and the Community* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1952), pp. 34-39.

⁸ "Establishing the Goals," Vol. I, *Higher Education for American Democracy: A Report of the U.S. President's Commission on Higher Education* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1947), pp. 69-70.



THIS I TRIED AND FOUND HELPFUL

Theme Correction and Revision

W. S. Curry

Casper College
Casper, Wyoming

One of the difficulties confronting all teachers of first year English is in helping students improve their themes. When word arrangements have been habitually incorrect for a number of years, the same errors are often repeated on every theme presented to the instructor.

Handbooks are not the answer for all students, for many will neglect to refer to the code used by the textbook writer; therefore, the code is meaningless.

At Casper College the most satisfactory method discovered to improve student writing comes from requiring the writer to make his own corrections after the instructor has indicated the errors. As soon as the corrected writing has been returned, the student is asked to place a sheet of paper opposite his first theme page. With this page on the left side of his theme folder, the student is asked to record on it the errors marked on his first page, then to make the necessary corrections of the words, sentence structure, punctuation, etc. It is recommended that these corrections be made opposite each marked error. When page one is com-

pleted, corrections can be made on the back of page one of the theme; the same procedure can be used on all pages that follow. By using this method, each student will understand the error he has made and the construction that is necessary to correct that error.

Since themes are required each week, this system helps maintain an interest by the students who have mastered most of the fundamentals of English grammar; otherwise, they find the drill procedure very dull. Abilities vary so widely in English, it is always a challenge to keep the good student interested as well as help the poorly prepared student improve his expressions.

This procedure is not new, but perhaps some instructors who are discouraged with the progress made by their students may want to try this method of theme correction and revision.

Techniques of Teaching Zoology

Reva Breckenridge

Meridian Municipal Junior College
Meridian, Mississippi

The principle objective of Zoology 101 and 102, as taught in Meridian Municipal Junior College, is to give a fundamental

knowledge of the basic principles of zoology from the protozoa through the vertebrates. The laboratory work emphasizes general classification and detail study of a representative number of animals in each phylum. The morphology, physiology, habitat, and distribution of the different groups are given serious consideration.

As a teacher of biological sciences, the writer finds there is no one method or technique superior to all others in teaching a given class. Instead, a combination of teaching situations arises in every class that necessitates switching to different methods of presentation, perhaps several times in the course of a class period.

In the introduction of new zoology study material, a combination lecture and observation period helps to speed up the learning process. The students work in groups of two. Each group is given a representative specimen of the phylum to be studied, and its external characteristics are observed as they are pointed out in the explanation given by the teacher. The characteristics that adapt it to its environment, its method of food getting, protection, etc., are pointed out while the student has the animal before him.

In presenting the internal anatomy of a specimen, pictures, diagrams, charts, slides, or material projects on a screen help to give the student a thorough understanding of what he is to look for when the opportunity presents itself for opening the animal and studying it in the laboratory. In addition, the student is encouraged to go beyond the material presented in the lecture observation period and explore the animal for himself and

also to seek help from any written material available.

If at all possible, it is helpful to show a motion picture of the animal in its natural habitat, its feeding habits, method of protection, in short, how it fits into the animal community of which it is a part. This, perhaps more than any other one approach, has led students to think of the representative of a phylum as a complete organism rather than a series of parts, as the laboratory dissecting period sometimes leads them to feel. Then, too, it proves to them that from the protozoa to man each animal has its own part to play in its habitat. Students learn that for every organism there is a definite purpose and that an animal will experience a complete and satisfying existence only if it conforms to the laws of nature that were laid down by the Creator where it was fit into the scheme of life on this planet.

Great Books Course

Frederic M. Wheelock

Cazenovia Junior College
Cazenovia, New York

Humanities 11-12 at Cazenovia Junior College is based on the type of course commonly referred to as a "Great Books" course. It is one of the basic core studies regarded as fundamental for all students regardless of their specific field. Because of the maturity desirable for the perusal of such works, only sophomores are admitted, and the requirements and the grading follow the norms of the four-year colleges.

The reading matter for this course consists of either complete works or lengthy excerpts from the works of some of the

greatest minds and literary artists which Europe has produced from classical antiquity to the nineteenth century. Through the analysis and the discussion of these extensive readings, the course aims to give the student a direct acquaintance with the foundations and the trends of Western culture; to develop literary taste and judgment; to provoke thinking on decisive and persistently recurrent problems of human experience: war and peace, why men fight and die, the psychology and behavior of men in times of war. The course is also designed to acquaint the student with the best form of society in its economic, social, and political aspects and conflicting needs of society and the individual, with man's total view of the universe, his moral and religious beliefs and ideas of immortality, with proper education for maximum social usefulness, women's position in society, the relations between the sexes, the problems of family life, and man's criticism of himself and his times.

The student is thus led to appreciate the place of the twentieth century in the pattern of human experience. This improved perspective teaches a student great lessons in humility and in the essential brotherhood of man, and helps him better to carry out the imperative emanating from the wise Apollo at Delphi: "Know thyself."

Students frequently come to scoff but regularly stay to pray in our academic temple. This, then, is vital reading for profit, learning for living. This is laying solid foundations for independent, self-reliant, intelligent reading and self-education during the remainder of the years after one's exit from the ivory tower.

The writer's conviction has always been that the text is the thing, that the role of the instructor is merely ancillary. Therefore, with the exception of occasional orienting lectures, the text is alpha and omega during the class periods. Thus, students learn to live with the individual author, his ideas, and his characters; they do not simply learn about the author via secondary material. Furthermore, these great documents are treated not as mere classics, dust-laden and impeccable and cold, but as living, animated documents which at times may even provoke disagreement. Finally, since it is fatuous for an instructor to assume that even sophomores will read with keen observation, as much time as possible is devoted to crucial words—often little ones—and the tales they have to tell. In this way, the student acquires the art of intelligent, analytical, and critical reading.

The discipline is not easy, but it is invaluable; and if the evidence of the comments at the end of the term has any validity, the students have consistently been grateful and enthusiastic.

Safety Lessons in Swimming

Sue Gerard

Christian College
Columbia, Missouri

Recognizing that the person who swims "a little" may sometimes be involved in near-drowning situations, three safety topics are included in the lesson plan for beginning and intermediate swimming classes at Christian College: self-rescue, assisting others without personal risk, and prevention of aquatic accidents.

Self rescue factors include bobbing a

short distance to safety and learning to level the body into a swimming position from a vertical position. Panic, release of cramps, and the call for help are all discussed.

Untrained lifesavers can safely assist others if they use an inner tube, a log, a fishing pole, or other equipment as they go out to the person in trouble. If the swimmer is near shore when he gets into trouble, a bystander can extend a towel, a chair, an oar, or other hand object to pull the victim to safety without danger to himself.

Several persons can form a chain extending from shore to the victim without risk to anyone. Complete directions for these and other forms of rescue are outlined in "Life Saving and Water Safety," available through local chapters of the American Red Cross.

Instruction in accident prevention fol-

lows the usual pattern of learning when, where, and how much to swim. In addition, simple inexpensive rescue equipment which can be carried in the trunk of a car is recommended. An innertube, forty feet of clothesline rope, a referee's whistle (to warn swimmers who are taking unnecessary chances) and similar equipment can be placed on the beach of unsupervised bathing places for safe rescue and also to remind swimmers of the dangers of foolish conduct in the water.

Christian College students also learn the causes of suffocation, how to apply artificial respiration, and how to give the supplementary first aid care for victims of accidents involving stoppage of breathing. It is felt that the three class periods devoted to safety are the most important lessons given in the beginning and intermediate swimming classes.



from the **EXECUTIVE SECRETARY'S DESK**

Jesse P. Bogue

A CONSTANT stream of materials of many kinds flows across the desk of the executive secretary: books, magazines, student papers, catalogues, books of views, reports of many kinds from colleges and associations, the *Congressional Record* and digests of bills and enactments, newsletters published by state and/or regional associations of junior colleges, and all sorts of propaganda from foreign countries as well as from national organizations. In addition, there are letters of inquiry about teaching positions, often inquiries about colleges where students might enroll, and letters for general information about the junior college movement. Perhaps the reader may be interested in some of the more important items demanding attention in the Washington office. It should be understood that those listed in this short report are only a few of the many that require answers and at times considerable research.

Here is a teacher in a junior college who is working for his advanced degree. He is making a study of the financial support for the junior colleges in his state. He

wants all the information he can find on the financial setup in such states as New York, Texas, Florida, Mississippi, and California with reference to public junior colleges. While we were not able to send him bulletins and other published materials, such as the legal enactments for the states, we were fortunate in knowing just what he could secure and the sources. We pointed out, also, the studies being made at this time in the U. S. Office of Education on the manner in which junior colleges are organized, administered, and financed in the several states. Our personal acquaintance with the persons responsible for state planning and consulting services in the states mentioned carried with it a distinct advantage. This is the kind of knowledge one secures in wide traveling in the United States. Its influence is brought to bear on problems of many kinds as they arise in the Washington office.

A man in another state far removed from the one mentioned above is writing his doctoral dissertation on "Accreditation of Private Junior Colleges in the

United States." Implications will be drawn for the accreditation of the private junior colleges in his own state. He wants to know where to find published materials on the accreditation of these colleges and the legislation by which they operate. Here, of course, we pointed out the standards of the regional associations and the fact that within the several states accreditation and legal provisions vary all the way from little or no recognition at all to those that are very strict and explicit. Fortunately, *American Junior Colleges*, edited by the executive secretary and published in 1956 by the American Council on Education, is a source book for information on accreditation by regions and states. Legal enactments for the organization and administration of private colleges differ so widely in the states that a search becomes necessary in the records and laws of the states themselves. In one state the clerk of the county court can authorize a charter for a private college. In others, it requires an act of the legislature. We encouraged the writer to pursue his study and make a copy of the same available to the Washington office.

"I am currently engaged in pursuing my Ph.D. degree studies at Northwestern University. I am interested in some area in connection with the junior college." So writes a third man. He wants information about areas that are not now under investigation but which, if properly pursued, will be profitable to him and to the junior college movement as a whole. He appends a note to say how much the *Junior College Journal* has helped him in his work as a student. We pointed out that the junior colleges are now much interested in follow-up studies; that while a

number of these have been completed, it would be helpful if one could be made of a selected group of junior colleges in Illinois, or one that would consider the records of transfer students to Northwestern, covering a period of ten years. We sent him a copy of the *Directory* for 1956 in which he could identify the junior colleges of Illinois and some follow-up reports that have been made from time to time. Among these was one published in 1943 by the American Association of Collegiate Registrars on "Success of Transferring Graduates of Junior College Terminal Curricula," By Dr. Walter Crosby Eells. In terms of techniques, this publication is very helpful. Among other things, it shows that out of 2,080 graduates from 67 junior colleges who transferred to 319 senior colleges and universities only 5 per cent withdrew because of poor scholarship. What's the record now? Perhaps our Northwestern student may find out.

Other graduate students come to the office for conferences. Here's one who is interested in the proposed study of "late bloomers," identified by the Student Personnel Committee at the Chicago convention in 1955. He has taken this study for his doctoral dissertation at the University of Maryland and finds it very interesting because it leads him into the psychology of individual differences, the whole range of student motivation, why the potentially able student doesn't do better at an earlier age, and what the role of the junior college may be in taking a chance with students of good ability whose records of achievement in high school are not good. What are the causes for some students maturing early, others at about the nor-

mal rate, and still others at later age? Does the junior college have any special responsibility to give these students a chance when the high standards of selectivity at many senior colleges close the doors to them?

A letter arrives from an associate director of university studies in a regional education board. He is exploring "problems in curriculum, instruction, and administration in higher education that call for intensive study in the light of growing enrollments and impending faculty shortages." We were able to point to the television project in the junior colleges of Chicago made possible by a grant of \$165,000 from The Fund for the Advancement of Education and supplemented by \$50,000 from the Chicago City Board of Education. It started this September and aims to experiment in the use of outstanding teachers by means of telecasting instruction in four areas to classes in all junior colleges operating under the Board of Education and to all other persons in the city who may wish to register for formal instruction and take it in their homes. We pointed out other places where similar experiments are under way. The City of Los Angeles, for instance, has appropriated through the Board of Education the sum of \$50,000 to begin experiments in closed-circuit telecasting, and the experiment at Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri, has now run its first year's course. Regarding the supply of able teachers, we referred to the study of Dean Kille, Carleton College, Northfield, Minnesota, on the sources of college teachers for colleges, junior colleges, and teachers colleges. Junior colleges have two representatives on this study: Dr. Leland

L. Medsker of California and Dr. A. M. Meyer of Texas. We pointed out that the experiments in television teaching were not merely to extend instruction to more students but rather to extend the very best possible teaching to more students by utilizing the talent of the greatest teachers obtainable.

A father writes from Aruba, Netherland Antilles, for information about junior colleges in the United States where he may enroll his son and daughter. We sent him a copy of the *Directory* because it is not the policy of the Washington office to recommend specific colleges unless those colleges have been specified in the inquiry. In these cases, information is given regarding facilities, costs, type of college, and accreditation. We recommended that inquiries be sent to a number of colleges in view of the fact that many of them were filled to capacity, especially those with boarding facilities. This letter was similar to many others that come to the Washington office. Hence, the usefulness of the *Directory* as a ready reference publication can be seen.

The educational editor of a great and influential newspaper wrote for information on junior colleges and judgments concerning the need for their further establishment in a metropolitan area and in the state. Studies are underway in this state and the newspaper is interested. We made reference to the state surveys in California, Florida, New York, Maryland, and Texas with the special recommendation that the best way to determine needs for junior colleges is by way of an objective, scientific study of needs and facilities. We pointed out the study now being made at the University of Califor-

nia on "Diversification in Higher Education" and the work of the President's Committee on Education beyond High School, both of which will prove valuable in determining procedures and results that may be obtained in any state. We commended Dr. S. V. Martorana of the U. S. Office of Education as highly capable in assisting in the determination of needs for junior colleges. Result: Dr. Martorana responded to an invitation and worked with the state survey group in September.

A very kind letter came from a graduate student and his wife at the University of California, accompanied by a book on the life of Christen Kold, authored by Nanna Goodhope, Viborg, South Dakota, published by Lutheran Publishing House, Blair, Nebraska. Reason: these students had just completed a course in junior college education at the University, had read *The Community College*, written by the executive secretary, in the course of which references are made to the Danish Folk High Schools and the part Kold played in their establishment. Since the Goodhope book is the first in English on the life of this great teacher, and since the philosophy of the Folk High Schools is strikingly similar to that of the junior colleges, the donors thought the executive secretary might like to read it and pass the word along to junior college people. He read it the same evening it was received and found it fascinating, stimulating, inspiring. He passes the word along with the hope that this book will be read by every junior college administrator and teacher. Pre-judgments can be made about the value of this book. Better judgments will be formed after it has been read. There

are very definite parallels between the struggles of tradition and the "free" schools of the Living Word in Denmark and many of those in progress in America today.

A new junior college has been established at York, Nebraska, by the Church of Christ. The newly appointed librarian wrote for information on book collections. We had the answer: *Books for Junior Colleges*, 1954, American Library Association, Chicago. We also advised that reference books for various disciplines should be selected by the teachers with whatever help the librarian can give.

The secretary of the Chamber of Commerce in a mid-western city states that a junior college is greatly needed in his city and that the Chamber of Commerce is interested in getting information. He contacted one of the junior college administrators in a nearby city. Result: an invitation to visit the city, consult with those who are interested, and make recommendations on how to proceed. The invitation was accepted and the engagement set for this October.

The assistant director of higher education in one of our great eastern states writes that, "The Board of Higher Education is faced with the necessity of making recommendations to the General Assembly of this state for plans and programs for a system of community colleges." He wants to know what are the best published materials and where they may be obtained. References were given and again recommendations made that the first step should be a state survey to determine needs, types of institutions required, approximately how many and about where they should be located, how

financed and administered. Among other publications, we mailed copies of "Suggested Procedures and Techniques for Initiating and Developing Legislation for a State Plan for Community Colleges."

"I have been asked recently," a secretary of a board of national missions states, "to serve on a committee which is looking into the question of college facilities in another state and believe that the ques-

tion of whether a junior college or a four-year college under private auspices should be established will come up." He wanted all possible information for persons who are considering establishing a new junior college. "How to Organize and Operate a Junior College" was mailed with a covering letter of advice about procedures and problems involved.

The Junior College



Jesse P. Bogue

Hillyer College, Hartford, Connecticut, according to an announcement from President Alan S. Wilson, has secured a new campus of 151 acres. Dr. Wilson writes that, "The deed is signed, recorded, and in our possession." This writer has seen the tract of land and considers it to be probably the very best in the city for the new college location. Architects are now working on general plans for the future development of Hillyer. An overall campus layout will be the first step. Plans are under way for the construction of the first building for science, engineering, and business administration. Hillyer has experienced a remarkable growth in recent years. The downtown quarters have become too limited for the student body. The college has a strong faculty and administration, all the students it can handle and many more in prospect for the future, good teaching equipment, but lacks space and buildings in which to carry on its work. The development of the new campus will take care of this defect for the present enrollment and give adequate space for the future.

San Bernardino Valley College, San Bernardino, California, has reached another peak in its progress. Dr. John L. Lounsbury reports that the voters of the junior college district approved a tax override of 35 cents to be in effect for seven years. The tax override is a provision whereby the college may pay as it builds for the future. It takes the place of a bond issue. The assessed valuation of the district is estimated at about \$195,000,000. It is expected, therefore, that income for buildings will be somewhat in excess of \$600,000 a year for the seven years. Plans in the making call for new buildings for all of the sciences, a new building for business education, doubling the size of the library, and, in the end, providing ample facilities for a student body of 4,000 students. Dr. Lounsbury states that, "We are grateful for the support given the college program by the people of the community and consider this election an endorsement of our entire program."

* * *

York Junior College, York Pennsylvania, has purchased an excellent new

campus site, ample in extent and located well with respect to the population of the city and county. The cost is reported to be \$250,000. The land is a former country club location. Plans are under way for the construction of the first building, estimated to cost about \$250,000. Dr. J. F. Marvin Buechel, former president of Everett College, Everett, Washington, and more recently the Consultant in Junior College Education for the National League for Nursing, has been elected president of York. He reported to his new position on August 10.

* * *

Battle Creek Community College, Battle Creek, Michigan, was organized under the City Board of Education this year and began its first term of education this September. Superintendent of Schools is Dr. Harry R. Davidson, and the director of the new community college is Dr. Robert O. Hatton. *The Battle Creek Enquirer and News*, Sunday, July 29, carried a story about the institution with published congratulatory messages from 12 educators. Among these was a message from President Harlan Hatcher of the University of Michigan, who extended to the new college assistance from the University. He stated further, "For 40 years junior colleges in this state have been performing excellent service in several local communities. At present there is no movement in higher education that is growing more rapidly. The addition of a community college program in an outstanding community such as Battle Creek provides one further aid in the total program of higher education in Michigan. The University of Michigan welcomes you as a partner

in this important enterprise." John A. Hanna, President of Michigan State University, congratulated Battle Creek and stated, "Experience has taught us long since that a community gains economic, social, cultural, and political strength and vigor in proportion to the expansion of educational facilities, and so, in the long run, all the people of Battle Creek are sure to benefit from this program. Michigan State University welcomes this development heartily and pledges to do what it can to make it highly successful." Battle Creek Community College was approved for membership in the American Association of Junior Colleges by the Board of Directors, July 30.

* * *

Emory-at-Oxford, Oxford, Georgia, according to a letter from Dean Virgil Y. C. Eady, is in the midst of an extensive program of improvement and development. The Methodist Churches in Georgia have authorized a \$2,000,000 program for aid to their educational institutions over the next four years. The share at Emory-at-Oxford will be \$300,000. The local community is raising \$50,000. On August 9 announcement was made of a special gift of \$50,000 for general repairs on the campus. This college occupies the former historic campus of Emory University. It has developed an outstanding four-year junior college program with emphasis on general education, high quality of instruction, and complete integration of curriculums for the 11th through 14th years. A new dormitory for men was occupied this fall, and campus housing was made available for a growing group of young women.

Los Angeles Junior College of Business, Los Angeles, California, has completed and published a remarkable follow-up study and evaluation of its program from students and faculty. From the response of 401 former students, 54 per cent indicated that the instruction had been outstanding, 96 per cent stated that it had been satisfactory or better, and not one former student showed dissatisfaction with his experiences at the college. In view of criticism one hears today about mass education, it is significant that 92 per cent of the respondents stated that the counseling had been entirely adequate. Out of all respondents, only one student indicated that club and student activities were slightly disappointing, while 82 per cent stated that they had participated in these activities and found them to be highly valuable as an integral part of their educational experiences.

Members of the faculty were asked to evaluate the college's program based on "Instruments of Evaluation of Quality of Instruction" prepared by Dr. Thomas Merson, Chairman, Committee on Evaluation of Instruction, California State Association of Junior Colleges, and Dean of Bakersfield College, Bakersfield, California. The quality of terminal education, in which the institution gives special attention, was rated very high. General education was rated low and steps have been taken as a result to correct this defect.

Wesley Junior College, Dover, Delaware, began a new work scholarship program this September with the International Latex Corporation. Engineering and business education students will work part time at the Latex plant in Dover.

They will receive scholarships equal to one-half of the college tuition and an established salary for 20 hours of work per week. Periods of employment will coincide with the college calendar, vacations being observed by the company for student interns. Employment will be made available during vacations upon request. Commenting on the arrangements, President Paul Slaybaugh of Wesley stated, "This is a great step forward in junior college-industry relationships. Naturally, we are pleased that International Latex Corporation has chosen to begin such a program at home and use Wesley as the college in which this program will be initiated. Their interest in the education of these young people is both generous and inspiring."

* * *

Monmouth College, West Long Branch, New Jersey, has moved to its great new campus, known as Shadow Lawn. It is stated that the main building on this former estate cost approximately \$10,000,000. The campus has 80 acres, located in the midst of one of the fastest growing sections of the state. It is expected that when certain changes are made in the seven buildings ample room will be provided for 3,000 students. The program of the college has been organized into four main divisions and approved by the New Jersey State Board of Education. There is the four-year program leading to the bachelor's degree; the two-year curriculums leading to the associate's degree; day and evening classes arranged for part-time or full-time students; and the summer sessions. The dean of the college is Edward G. Schlaefer, im-

mediate past-president of the American Association of Junior Colleges.

* * *

Junior College Libraries are being given serious consideration by the Libraries Section of American Library Association. Questionnaires have been mailed to all librarians to secure needed information. A monograph will be published by the College and Reference Libraries and will include the new standards, a History of the Junior College Libraries section as related to the development of the new standards, and statements of standards as they appear in various accrediting agencies' publications. Miss Ruth E. Scarborough, librarian, Centenary Junior College, Hackettstown, New Jersey, is director of the Junior College Libraries Section.

* * *

Georgetown Visitation Junior College, Washington, D. C., has launched a vigorous campaign to raise \$500,000 to construct a new and much-needed classroom building. Mother Cecilia Clark, Superior, states that this is the first request to the general public for assistance in the long history of this school. His Excellency, The Most Reverend Patrick A. O'Boyle, Archbishop of Washington, has graciously consented to be honorary chairman of the campaign. The junior college, conducted by the Sisters of Visitation, inherits the traditions of one of the oldest boarding schools for girls in the United States. Its founding was authorized in 1799. The charter for the school was granted by the Congress in 1828, approved by John Quincy Adams, and certified by Henry Clay. In 1919 the junior college was es-

tablished in addition to the preparatory department. The junior college is accredited by the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

* * *

Baltimore Junior College, Baltimore, Maryland, is developing a number of new curriculums geared to the needs of the business and industrial concerns of that city. This year 13 electronics graduates were fully qualified for employment in Westinghouse Electric Corporation under a new cooperative program, it is announced by Dean Wilmer V. Bell. The cooperative plan combines instruction in theory at the college and practical on-the-job training in the Westinghouse plant. Students spend alternate four months' periods at the college and in the plant. After three years they qualify for the associate's degree. Students earn prevailing wages while working in the plant. A new curriculum in Public Health Sanitation began this September. It was developed in cooperation with the Maryland Association of Sanitarians and the City Department of Health. This curriculum will be open to those already employed, those who wish to prepare for technical positions as sanitarians, and will serve also as a basis for further study toward professional degrees. The curriculum includes sanitary engineering, chemistry, bacteriology, sociology, physics, psychology, political science, effective speech, mathematics, and English writing. Graduates will qualify for employment in municipal health and sanitary agencies, food processing and food handling industries, or enter the third year of college to work for the bachelor's degree.



Recent Writings... **JUDGING THE NEW BOOKS**

HENRY, NELSON D. (ed.). *The Public Junior College*, (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1956). Pp. 347.

The Public Junior College comes up to the high standard set for all publications of the National Society for the Study of Education. It analyzes carefully the educational philosophy, the uniqueness of program, the diversity of organization and the effectiveness with which the community junior college meets the educational needs of post-high school youth. It captures the infinite variety of this fast-growing institution so completely that everywhere in the United States public junior college staffs and administrators will say, "This is my school."

The publication is especially strong in the organization of material, in the clear definition of the role of the junior college, in a presentation of public junior college practices that is fair to the many types of junior colleges existing in the United States and in the unity of approach that is truly remarkable with so many different writers. The first chapter contains the statement, "The junior college represents more than a promise for the future. It is a vital present-day reality, a vigorous institution." This thesis is developed throughout the book.

The four major purposes of the public junior college are identified as preparation for advanced study, vocational education, general education and community service. The following paragraph contains a significant statement relating to these objectives.

"Although these objectives are widely recognized and generally accepted, each college has a responsibility for determining its own specific objectives. The degree of emphasis to be placed upon any one purpose would naturally vary from college to college in accordance with the characteristics of its particular community." This is an excellent statement clearly indicating a policy by which each junior college may be a unique institution.

Looking at this publication critically, there are several items which should have been expressed more strongly. More emphasis should have been placed on the fact that a large proportion of those served in junior colleges are part-time students who complete the regular two-year program in three, four, five or more years. The junior college can no longer be called a two-year institution.

A stronger statement is needed to the effect that a college catalogue is a "contract." It should not contain the imagina-

tive hopes of the faculty but be a statement of availability.

More specific examples of unique programs would be helpful. If the program is tailored to meet community needs, this uniqueness may be found in such courses as commercial cookery, hothouse management, or marriage counseling. Regional and state planning in no way interfere with uniqueness in course offerings.

There is need for greater emphasis on the importance of in-service work with junior college instructors to weld into a strong united faculty people with varied interests and background. This is most effectively accomplished when teachers in an entire area, kindergarten through junior college, frequently meet together.

These criticisms are not meant to detract from the first statement of the importance of this publication. The authors are competent writers drawing from long experience in the junior college field. This is an excellent book for all those interested in learning the great challenge of this fast-growing institution. It is especially valuable for administrators and staffs of junior colleges. The writer would commend the use of *The Public Junior College* by staff committees and in general staff meetings where it might be reviewed chapter by chapter. The book is readable, factual and timely and will undoubtedly have a great effect on the future development of post-high school services in the United States.

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